The Nation.

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The Week.

Mr. Taft's impromptu address at Athens, Ohio, on Saturday, was frank and sensible. He said nothing which he has not said before, but in view of the fulminations of the labor leaders, it is gratifying to record that on the labor question he stuck firmly to his guns:

> I don't make any apologies. . . . When I am a judge on the bench in so far as I can I decide cases according to the law and the facts, no matter whom it hurts, because I believe that to be my sworn duty.

He then enumerated the purposes for which workmen may legitimately organize, and added:

> But they have not the right to injure their employers' property; they have not the right by what is called a "secondary boycott" to invite a third person into the controversy who wishes to keep out by threatening a boycott with him unless he assists them in the fight. In this fight between the employer and the employee, or the united employees, they must fight it out between themselves, and they must not involve the rest of the community in it by a system of duress. This law I believe is a fair law.

As to injunctions, Mr. Taft declared roundly that "there ought to be no favored class":

> A man who has property and a man who has labor to sell shall stand on an equality in court, and . . . every man should be entitled to be protected by all the writs and remedies that the law affords, by an impartial judiciary, and that whether he be a laborer or a capitalist.

Mr. Taft then urged the laboring men to forget their particular and especial "class interest" and then, "like patriots," with the interest of the whole country at heart, to sustain the power of the courts. Mr. Taft has not been a brilliant campaigner. His set speeches are in general much heavier reading than Mr. Bryan's—though they are also sounder in logic. But we regard it as "good politics," good for his party, good for his country, to have him come out squarely for the impartial enforcement of law. In no way can he do more to persuade sober and conservative people that he is more fit than Mr. Bryan for the Presidency.

Mr. Bryan's speech at Indianapolis last week was devoted to the impossible task of supporting the Democratic scheme for regulation of Trusts. We need not dwell on minor details, most of which, despite Mr. Bryan's elaborate argument, are plainly unworkable. The most important remedy which he (and the Democratic platform) urges is a Federal license which would prevent a corporation from controlling "more than 50 per cent. of the total amount of any product consumed in the United States." Mr. Bryan here abandons the old theory of the law—tested by the experience of centuries—which condemns monopolies "in restraint of trade." He sets up a novel, a purely artificial, and an absolutely impracticable definition of monopoly. He forgets that the law must be couched in general terms, and that when once you forsake the ancient and sound principle, "restraint of trade," you are adrift without chart or compass. There are, for example, many corporations, most of them small, which produce substantially all of a given commodity that is consumed in this country. They do not restrain trade, for the field is open to any person that will enter; but the established concern, with its reputation and trade-mark, has perfected its methods of manufacture and delivery so that without rebates or special favors from common carriers it can, by sheer skill and efficiency, hold the market against all comers. Is it desirable for the Federal government to step in and say that such a company shall fill only 50 per cent. of its orders? Can the government force another, more poorly equipped and less ably managed, to step in and furnish the goods under another label? A corporation that supplies "forty millions of people with that product," says Mr. Bryan, is doing "enough." But suppose the price be kept so low that no competitor appears; what can the law accomplish? Mr. Bryan, when you get to the bottom of his scheme, is really advocating the vicious doctrine of protection. He would put a prohibitive tariff on the goods after the first 50 per cent. is sold and would thus try to compel an economically weaker company to enter the business.

Furthermore, how shall you define "50 per cent. of the total amount of any product"? Shall all kinds of steel be lumped together, or shall you consider each of a thousand forms, from watch-springs to bridge beams, as a separate product? Shall all wheat products be taken in the mass or singly? What broad principle of division can be laid down? How can a legal concept embodying such a vague idea be framed in words that shall not result in endless confusion? And who shall determine what is 50 per cent. of the consumption? Shall imports be included? What vast army of inspectors is capable of determining the exact amount that is consumed of each product that is shipped from State to State? Shall the 50 per cent. be reckoned on the basis of last year's output? What percentage of allowance shall be made for unforeseen contingencies of business? Who shall make it? To put these questions is to answer them. Mr. Bryan's wild proposals cannot be reduced to general legal terms. A statute cannot be drafted that will formulate them, and the simple reason is that he is clamoring for a muddled, hopeless plan, that violates the fundamentals of both economics and law.

Even Representative Sereno E. Payne, the most bigoted "stand-patter" alive (unless we except Speaker Cannon), admits that "the time has come" for revision of the tariff. Last winter he thought it unwise to attempt revision "on the heels of a panic and in the course of a Presidential election," but he can see no reason for postponing action after March 4; and, as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, he has "now at work a force of experts" who will, he believes, "be able to lay before the committee all the information necessary." But in his speech of Monday accepting a renomination he reiterated his belief that "the tariff must be revised by the friends of the American workmen. There is no safety in any other way. Rates must be raised where it is necessary and reduced where they are higher than necessary." Twaddle of this kind hardly deserves serious comment. The tariff was never framed in the interests of the American workman. The manufacturer who could contribute to the campaign funds was the only man

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whose desires were considered. No doubt an effort will be made to raise the rates on certain articles; some beneficiaries of the tariff will never be content. But the essential thing, after all, is that the question of revision shall fairly come up for discussion. There are many dark places in the tariff law which need the light; but the Republicans, with their fine brute majority, have hitherto choked off every one who has ventured to mention the subject.

Our American railway accidents are horrible enough, without being made to appear worse by inaccurate comparison with European disasters. Some practical joker must have furnished the figures which recently led a magazine writer to declare that, in the year when the United States railways were killing 10,046 persons and injuring 84,155, only 74 lives were lost on all the lines of the German Empire. Official statistics for 1906, just published by the League of German Railways, show that 165 travellers, 1,003 employees on duty, and 746 other persons met death by railway accidents during the twelvemonth, while 5,142 persons were seriously injured. The worst of it all is that, despite precautions, the record has been growing steadily blacker for more than a decade. German railway men are cautious to a fault; stations are rarely more than three or four signal blocks apart; the number of employees is large, tramps are few, and trespass upon tracks a rare form of *lèse-majesté;* and yet 8,100 mishaps and 7,056 personal injuries mar the record of 1906. Bearing in mind that more than half the victims of American railways are tramps and other trespassers; that the enormous mileage in sparsely settled regions makes the nearly perfect German system of track-walking impossible, and that our American labor unions have demoralized more than one division superintendent, this country can obtain some slight satisfaction by a study of the German figures we have quoted. The urgent necessity for reform here should not, however, be overlooked.

"Peace on earth, good will toward *some* men" was apparently the wish of a number of Argentinians when their country joined with Chili in erecting at the summit of an Andean pass a gigantic statue of Christ in token of mutual disarmament on land. This splendid memorial has not deterred the Argentine Chamber of Deputies from authorizing a naval appropriation of $65,000,000 in order to follow the pace set by Brazil. Even though the Senate, backed by terrified taxpayers, will probably thwart this madness, the incident deserves to become a classical illustration of acute jingoism and its consequences. Our South American friends need Dreadnoughts about as sorely as Greenland needs an artificial ice plant. Brazil and Argentine, the only two countries to the south which can seriously consider an ambitious naval policy, have no conflicting interests at home; and neither is looking forward to territorial expansion. Both have all they can manage for generations to come in the way of internal developments. In short, the whole ridiculous frenzy at Buenos Ayres and Rio de Janeiro suggests that the descendants of Tartarin of Tarascon have gone into politics down there.

In postponing the Tokio International Exposition until 1917, the Japanese government displays sagacity beyond that of Western nations. Sufficient reason for the sudden action cannot be found in the statement that the later date coincides with the fiftieth anniversary of the Emperor's accession. If the Japanese are anxious to defer the celebration, after having made many expensive preliminary arrangements for 1912, it must be because they have discovered that world's fairs are nowadays a losing investment, their deficits varying directly with the distance from Paris. Since Chicago's splendid but costly effort in 1893, imitations have been attempted wherever two or three enthusiasts in search of employment have gathered together, discovered somebody's anniversary, and coaxed funds from gullible hotel-keepers and open-handed legislators. The result is that, both here and abroad, the "international exposition" is less clearly distinguishable from an exalted county fair than it ought to be. To get up a really worthy exposition costs a vast sum of money, and at present Japan must practise every possible economy.

The Kaiser's speech for European peace is all the more welcome because, had he wished, William II. might have easily given the Continent one of those shivering fits which so often follow a German Imperial pronunciamento. Opportunities are not lacking. There is, for instance, the Moroccan affair, which has more than once troubled the peace of Europe. Owing to the defeat of Abd-el-Aziz, France is now confronted with the necessity of radically readjusting her programme. A new policy must be built up around the new Sultan. Had the Kaiser decided openly and in advance to antagonize French plans in this field, had he raised his old complaints about Germany's rights being imperilled in North Africa, something like another serious crisis would have been at hand. The Turkish upheaval, too, has seriously disturbed the European chancelleries. The downfall of Abdul Hamid is generally regarded as a setback for German influence. Had the Emperor chosen to declare that conditions in the Balkans offer cause for disquiet, or patience, or some other diplomatic state of mind, the war-mongers of Europe would immediately have struck up in chorus. To have William II. under such circumstances in such good humor is a distinct matter for congratulation. Evidently, he has made up his mind that all those pernicious attempts at isolating Germany have not, after all, done her much harm. As a worker for peace, the Kaiser can be of greater service to the world than almost any other living man.

Under the Workmen's Compensation Act, passed in England in 1906, it is provided that an employer shall be liable to pay damages to workmen who receive injuries during their employment, unless such injury is directly attributable to the serious and wilful misconduct of the workman himself. The case of Lowey vs. the Sheffield Coal Company, recently decided by the English Court of Appeal in favor of the employee, shows how broadly the phrase "during the course of employment" is being interpreted. In this instance a man had stopped work at five o'clock on Saturday morning, and at midday was going for his wages along a path made by his employers to their works, when he was injured by a passing train not owned or controlled by the defendants. Although the man was not to work again on that day, the court held that it was part of the contract of employ-

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ment to require the workman to go for his wages along that road, and that therefore the accident had happened during the course of employment. In view of this English act and the recent desire of our own government to do away with the doctrines of "fellow servant" and "assumed risk" as defences in actions for negligence, our State liability acts are also likely, before long, to be so amended as to make the employer virtually responsible in every accident to an employee. It seems to be a growing belief that each industry should bear the responsibility for its injuries, regardless of causes, rather than to cast the entire burden upon the injured man and his family. In view of this tendency, employers of labor might well consider introducing some definite system of compensation for injuries received during employment which will be recognized by all employees as equitable and just, and will follow the lines, perhaps, of the existing pension systems.

OUR NATIONAL EXTRAVAGANCE.

Mr. Bryan had no difficulty in making out a strong case against the Republicans when he spoke at Minneapolis on Monday about the extravagance of the present government. Had he wished, he might have fortified his statements by quotations from leading Republicans. There is Senator Hale, for instance, who early in April called attention to the increasing outlay in the face of falling revenues. An army bill appropriating $98,000,000 had just slipped through Congress, practically without debate. It was larger by $20,000,000 than that of the previous year, although no one could point to any emergency justifying the increase. There was not even the prospect of trouble in the Philippines. But, unlike any private business man, the government, instead of cutting expenditures to suit income, went ahead as if it were not facing a heavy deficit. The actual amount of this was $59,656,000 on June 30, as contrasted with a surplus of $72,000,000 in 1907—hardly a satisfactory showing for a Presidential year. But it was Representative Tawney, chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, who made the strongest plea for a return to sanity and for curbing the mad craze to spend which has seemed to possess every succeeding Congress. It was in vain, however, that he appealed to his own party leaders; they turned a deaf ear to him. As a result, the appropriations amounted to more than a billion dollars, or double the appropriation for a single session of the Fifty-first Congress.

As Mr. Bryan points out, this enormous extravagance is primarily due to our imperialistic policy. Senator Hale bewailed the fact that his party, which disbanded the great volunteer armies so promptly in 1865, and let the fleet dwindle to reasonable proportions by 1870, is now devoting 70 per cent. of the national revenue to pensions and war purposes, past and present. Mr. Bryan explains that the army and navy now cost $120,000,000 a year more than in 1897—such is the legacy of our needless war with Spain. This enormous sum is, of course, raised by taxation from rich and poor alike. It makes life harder for every workingman, and adds directly to the cost of the food that goes into the now half-empty dinner-pail. It is the reverse of a square deal for the man who lives by his hands. Or for any one else; for it is a wasteful and unproductive expenditure for which, at the end of five or ten years, we have practically nothing to show.

So far as Mr. Bryan recites facts of this kind, he is not to be put down or answered. Even if the revenues were to equal the outlay, there would still be no excuse for such squandering of public moneys and for the abandonment of our former ideal of maintaining a small military establishment merely for police purposes. But Mr. Bryan is by no means convincing when he urges that the Democratic party is the only one to put a stop to this extravagance. In the last Congress the Democrats had no representatives who spoke out on this subject so earnestly as Messrs. Hale and Tawney. In the Denver platform the party abandons its opposition to a large navy and takes refuge in the platitude that it favors an "adequate" fleet, leaving the country quite in the dark whether the adequate size is to be determined by Rear-Admiral Evans, with his 48 battleships, or Hobson, with his 148, more or less. Nor in general have the Democratic leaders shown a disposition to devote themselves earnestly to a policy of economy.

That the Republican party is naturally more prone to be lavish than the Democratic, is undoubtedly true. We have repeatedly pointed out the close alliance between protection and prodigality. The raising of a great surplus by a high tariff is a temptation to embark on new schemes like irrigation, afforestation, the reclaiming of swamp lands, the widening of waterways, and a hundred other enterprises which, however important some of them may be, tend to jobbery and the consumption of huge sums. Naturally, there follows multiplication of offices, *ninety-nine thousand* new places under Roosevelt, as against ten thousand under Cleveland and McKinley—a fact which is not to be overlooked by those who would count up all the reasons for Mr. Roosevelt's popularity.

When the time comes for the Democracy under a consistent leader to throw all its influence on the side of frugality, the party will be able to make a powerful appeal. But to compel votes on this issue the Democrats must offer something more than Mr. Bryan's promise. The Democrats might well begin by a sharp attack upon our present Congressional committee system, which is now largely responsible for our recklessness. As long as this system exists unchanged, so long shall we have log-rolling and swapping of votes in the dark by both Democrats and Republicans, so long shall we be without a proper budget like that of Great Britain, which forecasts income pretty accurately and regulates expenditure accordingly.

JAPAN AND AUSTRALASIA.

As the Pacific fleet has ploughed its way along the Australian coast, popular enthusiasm there has steadily risen. Sydney was demonstrative in its welcome; Melbourne, the temporary capital of the Australian Commonwealth, is reported to be fast in the grip of that delirium which may be called consciousness of race-kinship or Anglo-Saxon fraternalism. The cause of such unwonted emotion under the Southern Cross is no secret. Bluff statesmen like Sir Joseph Ward, Premier of New Zealand, have declared in so many words that the British colonies in the Pacific look to us as their natural allies in the coming struggle against Japanese domination. Great Britain, white Australia feels, is too far away, farther away than ever since her policy of naval concentration in home waters has

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reduced her strength in the Pacific. We, on the contrary, have the ships, have the men, and have the money, too—not to speak of the Panama Canal. So Australia takes our fleet to its heart.

How much of this anti-Japanese scare in Australasia is permanent and sincere, how much of it is the fine flower of the small politicians' efforts to raise a thrilling issue and provide a resonant battle-cry for the Australian voter, we do not know. Even if the ideal of an all-white Australia has permeated the entire population of the southern continent, there is still a long step between a people determined to keep Asiatics out of their country and a people working itself into a passion of alarm lest the Asiatics come and insist on being let in. Take the parallel instance of our own Pacific Coast, where persistent agitation has bred a certain amount of genuine anti-Japanese feeling. No one besides Hobson and his kind really believes in the possibility of an attack by Japan on our Pacific Coast, or on the Philippines, or even of any hostile move that may bring on war with this country. Yet the Hobsons thrive. It does not matter that Japan has repeatedly declared, by word and deed, her strong desire to remain at peace with everybody. Japanese statesmen, of course, are perjured villains, and Japanese concessions are only so many traps for the unwary Powers. It does not matter that only the other day Japan made open confession of her financial troubles by a radical cut in her military and naval budgets. Editors of yellow journals will tell you that the budget reduction is only a blind for Japan's putting another half-dozen Dreadnoughts on the stocks No, nothing that Japan can say, nothing that she can do, will convince the wild jingo that she is not determined to seize the mastery of the Pacific in a few years. And Australia apparently sees Japanese armies landing on the Queensland coast, even as Great Britain herself visualizes now and then a German expeditionary corps on the coast of Yorkshire.

And see, actually, what Australia must expect in the near future. Because Japan crossed one hundred miles of strait and occupied Korea, and moved down some five hundred miles and occupied Formosa, it follows inevitably that she must go south 2,500 miles and seize Australia. For does not the chain of islands curving down like a serpent from the Philippines through the Indian Ocean to Australia, point out to Japan her manifest destiny? Is not Australia but the last and largest morsel that Nippon reserves for her capacious maw? It does not matter that in Korea, practically just across the way, she is experiencing all the difficulties of subjugating a determined people, and that Formosa, five hundred miles away, is only half subdued after thirteen years of Japanese occupation. Why should not Japan go down and annex Australia? All she would have to do on the way would be to occupy the Philippine Islands after defeating the United States, take Borneo from Great Britain (her ally, let it be remembered), drive out the French from Indo-China, the Dutch from Sumatra and Java, and the Germans from New Guinea and their small archipelagoes. In other words, to get at Australia, Japan would only have to defeat the United States, Great Britain, France, Holland, and Germany; why shouldn't Australia be frightened? The Sheriff of Nottingham, in "Robin Hood," asserts that he is not afraid of Robin, "no, not even if there is one of him and six of us; I wouldn't be afraid if there were twice as many of us." The number of barriers interposed between Japan and Australia seems only to have intensified the latter's dread. If Austria and Italy, too, had colonies to defend in the Pacific, Australia would simply go mad with terror.

We have enumerated all the great Powers of Europe save one—Russia. That empire our anti-Japanese strategists have entirely overlooked in their disposition of the mastery of the Pacific. The momentous fact to be kept in mind is, however, that Japan has a frontier to defend in Korea and Manchuria, and Russian machinations to combat at Peking. If Japan should be plunged into war with the United States, or set off on the conquest of Australia, Russia can be counted on to seize the chance and try to regain the lost half of Saghalien, or Port Arthur, or her expensive Chinese Eastern railway, or her lost prestige in Asia. Even miracle-working Japan cannot keep her armies in Manchuria, and her fleet on the Sea of Japan, and have them over again to send to Australia and to the Pacific Coast and to the Philippines. While Russia remains one of the great Powers neither Australasia nor our own Pacific coast should lose sleep over the peril from Japan.

THE CUBAN EVACUATION.

At a conference at Oyster Bay last week it was decided that the elections for a President of Cuba and a Congress shall be held November 14, and that the new President shall be inaugurated on January 28. Presumably, the provisional American government will then withdraw. The decision as given to the newspapers was accompanied by Gov. Magoon's familiar optimistic predictions that all will be well, that the elections will pass off peacefully, and that the Cubans will take "capable hold" of their reconstituted government. Official optimism is, of course to be expected. Not one of our colonizers or canal-diggers would admit that his work is marred by any flaws, or could be improved; and together they form a mutual admiration society of praiseworthy activity. President Roosevelt knows that no colonial administrator, not even Cromer, surpassed the record of Gen. Wood in Cuba or Taft in the Philippines; Gov. Magoon knows that no one living could have composed the revolutionary differences of 1906 as well as Mr. Taft; and Mr. Taft sends telegrams from Hot Springs to Gov. Magoon, congratulating him on his unparalleled success in bringing order out of chaos. The country believes firmly that our achievements in Cuba, the Philippines, and Panama are superhuman in worth and wisdom, and any one who insinuates that there may be another side to the record is obviously a bad American, ready to dishonor the flag in order to make political capital at the expense of the wisest and best of governments.

Well, there are many bad Americans in Cuba who do not get all their information from official sources or take it at the official valuation. They are by no means so happy and contented as Gov. Magoon, and they look to the future with unconcealed anxiety. Among them are men sincerely desirous of seeing Cuba independent and self-governing. They are convinced that the island is not ready to be turned over to the Cubans, if only because the Herculean task of rebuilding a wrecked government, of establishing the mass of new laws recently drawn by Col. E. H. Crowder and his assistants, and of ac-

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customing Cubans to the spirit and letter of these statutes cannot be properly accomplished in two years, or even in five. These men are aware that the Palma republic collapsed not merely because of the weakness of its head, but because of the absence of these very laws, relating to elections, the judiciary, sanitation, the civil service, the military, the powers of the President and the various departments, the municipalities, commercial procedure, and still others. These Americans are bold enough to say openly in Havana that no government so ill-equipped as was Palma's could have succeeded even in American hands without perpetrating much injustice. They even go so far as to connect the coming evacuation of the island with the ending of Mr. Roosevelt's term, and to affirm that the setting-up of the new government, like the return of the battleship fleet, is hurried to form a part of the record of Mr. Roosevelt's achievements.

In their general position we believe that these Americans represent the views of nearly all the subordinate American officials under Gov. Magoon. Certainly, these officials are not ignorant of the growing feeling that the Magoon administration is tainted by too much personal as well as party politics. They object to the granting of a practical monopoly to the present street-car company in Havana, not so much because it is a monopoly as because its general manager, Mr. Steinhardt, is Gov. Magoon's closest adviser, a fact in itself bound to be misinterpreted, to be wrongfully regarded by the Cubans, used as they are to Spanish methods, as an evidence of corruption. The Cubans feel, too, that this was a matter which might properly be left to the new Cuban government. In their eyes the haste savors of carpet-bag rule.

Again, the revelations of corruption in the educational department have shocked the community. This bureau, like that of commerce and industry, has had less attention from Gov. Magoon than the others; yet it is of fundamental importance, and in it padded payrolls and other forms of graft have been discovered—under the American government. The chief of the department, one Escoto, ought never to have been reappointed to his place by Gov. Magoon. He was the man who stole and published the famous Dupuy de Lome letter, in which the Spanish Minister criticised McKinley; he was dismissed by President Palma from his present office; and he was reinstated, it is openly charged, through political influence. This is a poor example to set the Cubans; and no one can pretend that Lieut.-Col. Robert L. Bullard, now in charge of the department, can, for all his known ability, effect the necessary reforms between now and January 28. The department must be turned over to the Cubans in an unsatisfactory condition.

A most unfortunate impression has also been created in Cuba—for which Gov. Magoon is in no way responsible—by the inexplicable acquittal by a court-martial of the two American soldiers who killed their two Cuban boatmen. It was a peculiarly cold-blooded crime by deserters who were trying to escape from the island; the facts are undeniable, but the men got off scot free, and the entire respectable press of Cuba, as well as the sensational, is highly and properly incensed. This failure of justice is mistakenly connected with Gov. Magoon's abuse of the pardoning power. We have not the latest statistics, but up to May 1 Gov. Magoon had granted 833 pardons; the Havana press openly jokes about them, and it is scoffingly said by the Cubans that some politicians are making from $5 to some thousands per pardon. That this charge is wholly unfounded, we have no doubt; but the wholesale jail-delivery is bound to give rise to such talk. It is sincerely to be hoped that Gov. Magoon is correct in his belief that Cuba is now ripe for self-government. If, however, two or three years hence, the republic again falls, the responsibility should not wholly rest on the new Cuban President, any more than Palma should bear the whole blame for the collapse of 1906.

THE MOTOR-CAR PROBLEM.

Punch sums up in a recent issue the automobile problem in Great Britain by a cartoon representing John Bull holding up a motor-car driven by John Bull which has just run over John Bull. The picture illustrates clearly the difficulty of controlling the motors. If there is yearly an increasing number of American and French tourists who add to the dust and dangers of English highways, the bulk of the automobilists are, after all, Englishmen. Not all of them are wealthy, and comparatively few are criminally reckless. In addition, the motor has admittedly come to stay because of its marvellous convenience and because it is, when properly used, a genuine aid to good health. But how shall it be regulated? There has been an unprecedented outburst of wrath from the public this summer. The press, from the London *Times* down, has been fairly overwhelmed with complaints, and the subject was warmly discussed in Parliament before it adjourned. The testimony in general is that the enjoyment of English country life has been spoiled for all who do not take to motoring—that the pedestrian, the bicyclist, and the house-owner who dwells by the roadside are in a sorry plight. The question comes home to us in America also; and much that has been said in England bears on our own case.

Naturally, the wildest remedies have been suggested. There are men who think that every automobile should be so geared as to make it impossible to run more than twenty miles an hour. Others would compel the construction of motors that would not suck up the dust. The speed and the dust seem to be the chief causes of complaint. It is true that there were 932 motor accidents in England in 1907 resulting in 213 deaths, but these included the havoc of the London motor-buses. There are at least 60,000 automobiles in England and 40,000 motor-cycles; and if each vehicle is credited with running only 100 miles a week, there is obviously not an alarming percentage of accidents in comparison to the traffic. It is annoyance rather than danger that provokes most of the protests. Frequently, however, as in the case of a man who writes to the *Times* that his country home is for sale because of the motor-traffic at his gate, there is genuine injury.

The suggestions for regulation are as indefinite as those which mark the debate in this country. Many persons think the horn the worst feature; others are certain that if it is forbidden the number of accidents will increase—a point of view that seems to us correct. Again, the speed limit has given rise to unending discussion. A majority of the motor drivers think that it should be abolished except for towns and villages. There is no reason for having the same rule apply to a little-used country road and Piccadilly. Lord Willoughby de Broke voiced the prevailing sentiment

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in the debate in the House of Lords when he said that the government should relentlessly compel a speed of ten or twelve miles an hour in all inhabited places, and admitted the impossibility of checking fast driving in the country. Mr. Long, the author of the existing motor act, against whose wish the speed regulation was inserted, assured the House of Commons that every argument he had made against the regulation had been borne out by experience. It is, he says, no real protection to the public, and is vexatious to automobilists by imposing a restriction which is in many cases totally unnecessary. He asserts that it is the duty of the police to stop inconsiderate and reckless driving without regard to pace. The motor-owner who goes forty miles in some stretches of road may be the most careful in dangerous places. Mr. Long would have no speed-limit and would hold every one responsible for the damage he does.

On the other hand, the number of conservative and considerate drivers is admittedly growing. One of them, Max Pemberton, the author, sends to the London *Times* the following excellent code, the strict observance of which would end, here as well as in England, most of the evils complained of:

(1.) Submission to and a strict observance of a speed limit of twelve miles an hour in all villages and in such urban districts as seem fit and proper to the central authority.

(2.) A faithful observance of the following rules of safe driving:

(a) Never to take a sharp corner at more than a walking pace.

(b) Never to overtake another vehicle upon a corner.

(c) Never to drive the engine down hill.

(d) To slow down upon passing pedestrians and other traffic.

(e) To avoid the mania for taking doubtful openings in traffic, a habit very exasperating to the public and attended by much risk.

(f) Not to drive faster than twenty miles an hour at night under any circumstances, and to limit the speed to ten or fifteen miles an hour wherever other traffic or pedestrians are likely to be met.

(g) To slow the car down to ten miles an hour at all cross-roads where a clear view is not obtainable.

(h) To give cyclists plenty of room and avoid the inconsiderate and ungentlemanly practices by which they suffer so much inconvenience.

(3) The general habit of unselfishness, thus lessening the evils of the dust question and appeasing a large section of the public which would bear no hostility to the motor if it were not for the dust question.

(4.) The suppression of the open exhaust, dear to the heart of wild chauffeurs and of vain and foolish owners.

Unless there is a marked improvement in the manners and morals of the automobilists there are hard times in store for them. John Burns, as the Cabinet Minister concerned, has officially warned the fraternity that their fate is in their own hands, and that drastic results will ensue if they do not put their house—or their motor car—in order. Just what he will do he does not say. Perhaps he will take a leaf out of the new German automobile law, which makes the automobile owner personally accountable for the least misbehavior of his car. In this country the similar tendency to stringent law-making now noticeable has been proclaimed by the Automobile Club as a warning to all automobile drivers; and the club is in hearty accord with the movement to punish severely men like E. R. Thomas and the recently indicted J. H. Tyson of this city.

INNOCENTS FROM ABROAD.

When Prosper Mérimée was a young man he wrote a book about the Balkan countries, and with the money he received from his publisher made a journey through the Balkan peninsula to see how closely his descriptions tallied with the facts. We presume that, after all, Mérimée must have been pleased to see how near the truth he had come; for with books of travel as with trouble and love, the principle holds good that what we look for we find. This rule has often been illustrated by foreigners who write about America. Sometimes even they have succeeded in making us also see what they came to see among us and believed they had found. How many visiting Frenchmen or Germans, before they are within sight of Sandy Hook, have already sketched out the two leading chapters in their book—the one on the national thirst for wealth, and that other on the way in which American society is dominated by women? Both things may be true, but surely they do not represent a permanent condition, the account of which needs only to be stereotyped and repeated from decade to decade. Granted that we love wealth; do we love it as much as we did twenty or thirty years ago, or more or less? Granted that the average American slaves all day in order that his wife may spend money all day, are there signs of a drift towards a more evenly balanced altruism, or is the old tendency growing still stronger? Most of our visitors from abroad cannot answer because they come to us burdened with an old formula. If we could see ourselves as others see us, we should see ourselves as others saw us a hundred years ago.

In 1794, Talleyrand, for example, proscribed by the Convention in France as a royalist, came to America. An account of his two years' stay in this country is given in a recent number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Now, Talleyrand was not the rapid-fire correspondent of our own days, whose fountain-pen has often done a country greater damage than the conqueror's rifle and cannon. But Talleyrand, too, falls into the double vice of writing according to formula, and writing according to—well, let us call it fancy. At once he laid emphasis on the traits, "that were to become with time the distinctive marks of the American character, the passion for freedom, and the passion for wealth"—so says our writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. And he adds:

> One day in a small town in Maine, after having questioned his host, "a man of eminent respectability," about the quality and price of lands in the neighborhood, he [Talleyrand] mentioned Philadelphia. The American had never been there. "When you do go," said Talleyrand, "you will, of course, be delighted to see Gen. Washington?" "Oh, of course," replied the other, "but more than any one else, I should like to see Bingham, who, they say, is so rich." Washington the champion of freedom, Bingham, the man of money, in themselves they already incarnate America.

A striking bit of testimony across the ages, if only the tale, in one form and another, had not been printed so frequently. And the story not only sounds old, but, after all, it reveals no trait that is exclusively American. If you were to ask a French peasant, or a German woodsman, whom he would like to see in Paris or Berlin, he would very probably say M. Fallières or Emperor William and M. Rothschild or Herr Bleichroeder. If your European peasant should pass over the millionaire, it would be most likely because wealth and power are for him still concentrated in the person of the sovereign.

A French traveller whose book on America has just been brought out in Paris, complains of the wrong notion of France and Frenchmen prevalent in this country. He asserts that in one of our school geographies the inhabitants of France are summarily dismissed as "a frivolous people that drink

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quantities of white wine." We venture, however, to doubt the authenticity of the citation. But even if we do misunderstand the French, does not our own critic remark in his opening pages that the favorite phrase on American lips is "Business *are* Business"? Let no nation cavil at the innocent errors of another. We are none of us in a position to throw stones.

But America has suffered much from the established formula. Books about us are often like magazine texts that are written to fit a collection of photographs; the word is slave to the preconceived image. Thus we suspect Talleyrand was a bit indulgent to his fancy when, in the feverish current of Philadelphia life (*on y sentait bouillonner la vie*), among whites and negroes, politicians and financiers, laborers and mariners from all lands, he discerned "the pale Quakeresses clad in robes of a uniform gray, whose beauty Chateaubriand was later to mention." Quakeresses—of course they must be pale, and Talleyrand saw them quite as he came prepared to see them. And once Talleyrand saw the pale Quaker women, Chateaubriand was bound to see them. Thus we see how easy it is to set going the thousand stories which relate how Americans eat their breakfasts and get shaved while going up in the elevator to their offices on the thirty-second floor, or how American children whose fathers have a hundred millions refuse to play with children whose papas have only five millions. Sometimes our traveller consciously lies; often he believes he is telling the truth because the material seems to suit his formula. One elderly German traveller made up his mind that, in spite of what most people said, life in this country did have an historical background. So he came to New York, and, of course, found Sleepy Hollow, and Washington's various headquarters, and a number of old colonial mansions, and was delighted. "Ah, but your country *has* got a historical *under*ground," he exclaimed in his enthusiasm. And that incident sums up the whole secret of much foreign comment on America.

A GERMAN EMANCIPATION.

There is no exaggeration in the recent dispatch from Berlin saying that Prussia has been giving much less attention to current stories about German and British naval schemes than to the new educational policy of the government. This policy, promulgated last month in a decree by the Minister of Education, drives itself home more forcibly than colonial programmes and indirect taxes for battleships can ever do. The ordinary Prussian voter has buxom daughters whose present living expenses and uncertain future give him cause for thought. He also has a few inherited, half-believed superstitions about woman's proper sphere. Therefore, when a government commonly regarded as reactionary announces that it will hereafter extend to women every opportunity for education and technical training which the privileged sex has long jealously enjoyed, the good man must pause to find his bearings. From the traditional German point of view, the departure is even more startling than the recent temperance movement in university and military circles; for only twenty-five years ago the status of German women was, in some respects, more nearly Turkish than Anglo-Saxon. The mere suggestion that the sexes should be equal, at least in educational opportunity, was food for comic journals and drink for imperial aphorists, with their *Kinder, Küche, Kirche*. Until recently, no political party save the Social-Democrats has dared to raise its voice against the primitive ideal of the *Hausfrau*. This liberal attitude of Bebel and his followers has been, in one respect, a hindrance to the cause of emancipation; the official ban upon Socialism has kept in disrepute everything which Socialism favored, thus strengthening upper-class loyalty to the tradition that "a woman who thinks is as disgusting as a man who paints." Hence it is that, even today, professors in universities to which women are admitted still hold—and occasionally exercise—the right of excluding them from lecture-rooms. So profound is the impression made upon the cultivated mind by the sight of a peasant woman hitched to a wagon beside an ox on Brandenburg highways!

The strength of prejudice is revealed, perhaps unwittingly, in the government's explanation of its course. The preamble to the decree states that the Minister of Education has been persuaded by the growing unpopularity of marriage among young men of the upper classes. This deplorable attitude deprives many girls of suitable consorts; hence the unhappy creatures must be given a fair chance to shift for themselves—an ungracious justification, to say the least. The plea of economic compulsion, although squaring with certain obvious facts, shows that officials are still unwilling to recognize the rights of women as simple human beings. To grant higher education to a girl because she cannot find a husband is an act of charity no less than that of giving tools and leather to an idle cobbler. Were the concession not infinitely better than the avowed motive, a stickler for principles might properly spurn it. But Prussian women are not going to leave the little loaves in the oven to burn, just because all the big ones are not yet baked. For the nonce, there will be no serious complaint against the proposed separation of the sexes in all grades below the university and the technical school; the temper of German parents and school children is still too generally irreconcilable with anything smacking of co-education. Nor will the exclusion of workingmen's daughters from universities be made an issue, so long as the brothers of these girls are not allowed to matriculate in those institutions. Swiftly as democratic ideals are spreading, the Prussian masses do not seem to be seriously threatening the exclusiveness of the academic world. In view of the terrible overcrowding of the teaching profession in Germany at present, practically minded women will not grieve deeply over their humbler sisters' inability to attain the Ph.D.

It is not unlikely that the first visible effects of the decree may vindicate the reactionaries. In many branches competition may be sharpened to razor-edge; if the *Frankfurter Zeitung's* recent statement that 60 per cent. of college-bred technical men in Germany receive less than $500 a year, and that conditions are absolutely chaotic as a result of the ill-advised increase in the number of technical schools, be true, feminine invasion will certainly breed discontent. But eventually the inevitable economic adjustments must be made in Prussia as they have been in other countries where the opportunities for higher education are open to women. And in the long run an improvement in the intellectual condition of women cannot fail also to raise their social and political position.

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A WORD FOR BOOKS ABOUT BOOKS.

One of our critics has just been eloquently lamenting that so many of the neatly bound products of the press are not really books, but are books about books; but even books about books strike us as coming a trifle nearer to the great realities than mere articles on books about books. In an imperfect world the articles have their humble place, and so have books that cannot be classed as creative literature, but that are at best substitutes for the schoolmaster. Many people, doubtless, spend their time on ephemeral essays, say, on Milton, when they might be better occupied with Milton himself; but it by no means follows that if they had not been reading the essay, they would have devoted that hour to "Paradise Lost." Indeed, the chances are that they would have lighted on something yet more trivial than the essay, to say nothing of the epic. Then, too, the essay may take them to Milton; and that journey will be worth while. It is good to go up into an exceeding high mountain and behold all the kingdoms of the world; but some climbers need to have a path blazed for them, and the man who does this pioneer work is entitled to our thanks. Ben Jonson, it was, who complained of the ingratitude of a certain lawyer to whom he had rendered a great service. "Why, I was the man that first made him relish Horace!" And to some bit of didactic discourse, spoken or written, to some obscure teacher or reviewer, or writer of a book about books hundreds of us owe our first relish of some notable author—perhaps the very author who opened the windows of our mind to the east.

The lists of "books that have helped me," published from time to time, are full of strange and interesting suggestions. It is not always—perhaps not usually—the immortal plays and poems that set the intellect in motion and kindle ambition. A few crude pictures of palm-trees and savages in a little school geography may stimulate curiosity in a hitherto sluggish brain and start a boy or girl in a never-ending voyage round the earth. It was Voltaire's "Life of Charles XII.," bought for a penny, that planted John Burns's feet on the road to the British Cabinet. Johnson's parallel between Dryden and Pope is a pompous and not too discriminating piece of criticism; but as printed in the old fifth reader it may have unlocked for many the door to what Ruskin calls the King's Treasuries. Then, too, our popular lectures on literature—given before women's clubs, university extension classes, Young Men's Christian Associations, and rural lyceums—are generally thin and feeble. Superior persons may find in them all the vices of books about books. But these fumbling lectures, with their slap-dash eulogy and misplaced censure, are not intended for superior persons. The arrow, awkwardly feathered and ill-aimed as it is, somehow flies to its mark. After each of these lectures the best books in the village library are more frequently drawn out and more eagerly studied. And the peripatetic lecturer, who has gone his way, sick with a sense of the futility of his efforts, may comfort himself with the reflection that his tiny spark of Promethean fire has, in spite of all discouragements, fallen upon tinder.

This, indeed, is the consolation of all teachers, and other inglorious guides to the realms of gold. They are generally underpaid and often unappreciated. They are prophets without honor in their own country. The Wall Street broker and the grocer set down the teacher and the literary hack as fourth-rate plodders, incapable of earning a decent living. It may be unfortunate that the men who facilitate the exchange of ideas receive less recompense than those who facilitate the exchange of commodities. Some callings, nevertheless, are in part their own reward; and there are human beings who would rather traffic in ideas at a profit of $1,500 a year than in cheese and bonds at a profit of $15,000. Then, too, it is written that man shall not live by cheese and bonds alone. The hand that carries the torch and passes it on may be weak and faltering, unworthy of the high office, but it is the hand of one who has chosen the better part, who has tried, however unsuccessfully, to quicken a love of good books, of art, of the humanities, of the things of the mind. He has devoted his life to the sustenance not of the body that perisheth but of the soul.

And each rising generation, be it remembered, must have its teachers and interpreters. They are the mediators between the past and the present. Just as children need instruction and guidance, so all of us, children of a larger growth, are in debt to the critics, whatever their rank or formal profession, who help us to understand, to enjoy, and to profit by the masterpieces of literature and the other arts. Most of us would be blind to the splendors of Homer, of Virgil, of Dante, and even of the noblest writers in our own tongue without some one to proffer us a word of advice and direction, a warning of the difficulties of the way, as also a hint of the delectable prospects. It is thus that the faithful teacher and the industrious author of books about books, the men who give us our first relish of Horace, are each in his degree servants of the ideal.

THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE IN COLLEGE.

I.

We are familiar with the charge that young people no longer read good books. The average young person to-day seems to have no habitual recourse to that selected and stored-up wisdom of the race, which until our day has been a chief means and effect of culture. Whether this loss be due to some widespread crowding out or the influence of books from the home, or to the unsettled mental background of a population recruiting from all races and traditions, in either case the educator has no more interesting problem, nor hardly a graver duty, than to open up for these young minds the experience of what is, or is to be, their race, and to lay upon them the spell of great books, in which that experience is stored. The importance of this problem is recognized in the amount of time given to the teaching of literature in schools and colleges. Yet it can hardly be questioned that in general, with all this teaching of literature, the knowledge of books is not taught. Can it be taught? ask the scientist and the historian.

We should not expect it to be taught in the schools; there the motley curriculum is too much a thing of expediency, and in English too much time must be lost in getting up the absurd entrance requirements, for the pupil to think of the mutilated and annotated classics in which he is "prepared," as much more than one of the barriers between himself and athletic eligibility. It is in the college that the educator at present finds room for the attempt to "teach literature," where the subject is fashionable, and the teacher readily finds students, has all the time he wants, and is free to devise any means whatsoever for turning the baseball captain into a reader of Thackeray. But the miracle rarely happens.

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Yet it ought to happen—or, rather, why should it be a miracle at all? Literature presents to the boy the most directly human subject matter in the curriculum; he will find that work and play coincide as nearly as may be in this crude world, when he sits down to read Fielding, or Scott, or Dickens. So enticing, indeed, seem the hardest tasks that a literature course can prescribe, that our colleagues the scientist and the historian, mentioned before, remembering their own joyous first discovery of "Pendennis" or "Pickwick Papers," wondered how such a draught of nectar to the thirsty soul can be counted as a task at all. Yet the almost complete failure of the average teaching of literature should be warning enough that the problem is not simple. There are, indeed, the bright exceptions; who of us has not had some pupil who kindled at a chance word of his, and became a lover of books? Alas! who has not been startled by the random nature of his solitary successes?

II.

In his brilliant address last November to the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, President Wilson of Princeton University said of the teaching of literature in schools:

> You can teach English literature as a science, which it is not; or as art, which in your hands it cannot be; but whichever way you choose to attempt to teach it you will fail, if you regard it as a thing to be objectively imparted. You cannot pedagogically impart the song of a bird; you cannot pedagogically impart the appreciation of a landscape; you cannot pedagogically impart even the nice appreciation of idioms. The only way you will ever appreciate the idiom is by hearing it often; the idiom you hear most of you will most appreciate.

These words, spoken of school education, may well apply to college teaching, and they express and suggest both sides of the problem. They are a protest against useless methods of teaching literature to those who have not already the love for it; the dissecter and the scientist of literature leave the young heart untouched. But the speaker, like many of our educators, thinks of literature as an art—art in the sense in which it may be likened to a bird song or a landscape. Few teachers will disagree with his conclusion that such an art cannot be taught; there is very little in the human heart of boy or man to which such an art could permanently appeal. When we first read "Rob Roy" or "Ivanhoe," were we fascinated by its art at all (song of a bird!)? Or when we read "The Ancient Mariner" and "Kubla Khan," which attracted us more, the marvellous story or the marvellous song? Surely for the average boy or man, literature appeals through the experience it portrays, the companionship it offers—the crowded hour of glorious life, not the ministering artistry of music or picture. The interest is human, natural, and direct; we read "Pickwick Papers" because we like to meet Sam Weller and his father and the other amusing characters. If in time we find that the book becomes defective in art, by some definition or other, and that our pleasure in it therefore fails, we may be assured that intellectual formulas are paralyzing our natural enjoyment, not only of books, but of life itself.

In this enjoyment of life itself our students are not a whit beyond the youth of fifty years ago; it is their curiosity to get at life, to have experience, that perhaps is making them impatient of a medium so indirect as books. They read of their own choice stories, no matter how crude, that present life with the greatest zest and energy. The books that arouse their interest most readily in the college course are the works of men who have had something striking, and to them novel, to say about life—Wordsworth, Emerson, FitzGerald's Omar. Should not the first principle of teaching literature be to discover what prevents the life-loving youth from seeing the life stored up in those other books, as yet dead for him? Should not the seccond principle be to remove that obstacle? If there is a third principle, should it not be to see that the student reads as many books as possible? "The idiom you hear most of you will most appreciate."

If this statement of the general problem is just, a college course in literature should provide for two things—the actual contact of the student's mind with as many books as possible, and the filling in of any gaps in his sympathy with what he reads. Almost all the great books were intended for the average man; the author contemplated an immediate relation with his audience. There is room for the annotator or teacher only when time has made the subject remote and strange, or when the imagination, through some defect or decline, is unable to grasp the recorded experience. A book fails to interest young people because it is of another age, or because they are imaginatively immature. The business of the teacher, then, is to supply an historical or imaginative approach to the book; beyond that it should appeal for itself.

A glance at most college catalogues will show that far different theories of teaching literature are not uncommon. How many courses are offered on the development of this form, or the structure of that, or the romantic something else! Valuable as such studies may prove to the well-read scholar, they are useless to the unread. By their very nature they thrust a fatal screen of historical and critical apparatus between pupil and book; and the reading itself, what there is of it, tends to become a search for literary data to sustain the theory, rather than a vital experience. In such a course the more energetic the teacher, the less likely is he to make readers of his students; the pressure is too great upon him to systematize and clarify his formulas, and to make his doctrines logical—the scientific impulse of which President Wilson speaks. But as few great works of literature illustrate any one theory completely or exclusively, the students may come to patronize the masters, or at most to give them but partial approval, measuring them by classroom standards. Too often the critical apparatus has left no time for reading. In our modern education there is hardly a more shameful product than the faithful students who can tell you what is wrong with Scott and Dickens, and can even attempt one more definition of the short story, and who have yet to read "Kenilworth" and "Our Mutual Friend" and "Wandering Willie's Tale."

I wonder how much more can be said for those "general" historical courses, in which English literature from "Beowulf" to Alfred Austin is "surveyed." The text-book tells when the author lived and died, and the correct opinion to hold of his work; certain "illustrative readings" illustrate, presumably, the fact that he did live and die, and afford portable excuse for the correct opinion. The student's approach to the books is just near enough to get a few names and titles confused. Recently, the victim of such teaching told me that he had been particularly attracted to the novelist "Dickinson." Richardson and Dickens had so coalesced and coagulated in his memory that to divide his impression would be like rescuing the original drops of ink from an old blotter. I asked him which of "Dickinson's" novels he had read. He could not recollect, but he was sure the book had a green cover.

Perhaps it is something that he remembers how the volume looked. Too seldom now does the mere appearance of books find its way into a boy's life, to rouse his curiosity later as to its contents. Yet many readers first kindled to their life-long passion in the family library, at an age when to their physical and mental eye Dickens and Thackeray and Scott were simply so many volumes, bound, as the States on the map were tinted, each in his natural color. For me to this day, in my instinctive, unguarded moments, George Eliot is brown and gold, and Scott is a shinier brown and a brighter gold, and ever so much wider on the shelves; I like them best in that dress, which they wore when they won my heart. If our boys have missed this early external appeal of the volume, it is not too late

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to try to surround them with books. Encourage them to buy as many as they can afford, and to keep them in sight; one enticing book habitually before the eye has much more likelihood of reaching the heart than a hundred volumes in the library stacks. And if ever it exists, the ideal classroom for teaching literature will be filled from floor to ceiling with great books and with portraits of their authors, so that book and writer, from hourly association, may be at least outwardly distinct in the boy's memory.

The cry is raised by many teachers that there is not time enough in the college course for reading. There certainly is not, if part of the student's time is consumed by the machinery of the course. But there is plenty of time if the student simply reads literature. The almost encyclopædic acquaintance with books shown by Tennyson and his companions at Cambridge, exceptional as it is, is quite possible for us. How well read a graduate would be who knew all of Shakespeare, the "Faerie Queene," "Paradise Lost," and the novels of Scott, Dickens, and Thackeray! The average college boy could cover this ground twice over in the time he now devotes to "literature," in class and out, from his fourteenth to his twenty-second year.

But how can you make the students read, objects many a teacher. A simple way is to assign reading, and then ask questions on it. To save time the questions and answers should be written, and the more frequent they are, the more regular will be the boy's contact with the books. If they are well chosen, three or four simple questions, calling for brief answers, will show whether the boy has read the novel or the play, and whether he has read thoughtfully. With a little prevision they can be used as a guide for the student in his reading. If you have been trying to explain Dickens's way of presenting character, and have illustrated from the chief figures in the story, ask questions that will involve similar principles in the minor persons; the answers will show whether the student read the book, and whether he read with your explanation in mind. What is more important, he will read for the next test with keener and more concentrated watch for the material for similar questions.

But even if the college course be planned so that the pupil's task will be to read great books constantly, the teacher's part, to connect the reading with the pupil's experience, is a large and difficult one. When we consider the wide knowledge he must have of boys and of books, we should not be surprised if the successful teacher is rare. He must recover for the student those past ideas from which the book grew, and to which it appealed; at the same time he will use his tact to keep in the foreground the book itself, rather than its history. When the boy reads Spenser, for example, he should be supplied in the classroom with those facts and ideas of chivalry and those concepts of Platonism which produced the "Faerie Queene," and on which the poet counted in his audience; if the teacher further explains in typical passages how those ideas and concepts are allegorized, the boy is then ready to find himself in the poem. In "Pendennis," for a nearer example, it needs no teacher to interest college boys in the first part of the story; there is no barrier between them and Pen or Foker or Capt. Costigan. In the latter half of the novel, however, their interest flags; the story seems to spread thin, flattening itself out in a society that college boys do not know. To perfect their connection with this part of the book it is necessary to show them, by reading and illustrating Pen's great speeches in chapter lxi., that the novelist is presenting what is perhaps the weightiest problem for young men of their age and breeding, the problem of compromise. To illustrate the speeches you have only to translate Pen's arguments into college experiences that you are certain your students know.

In addition, the teacher should not hesitate to put before the class the avenue, whatever it is, that led him in his youthful enthusiasm to any particular book. What attracted him may attract another. Unfortunately, the teachers usually reverse the method, and try to interest the boys first in the problems of research or criticism to which they themselves came after years of study—perhaps not well spent; they have wandered far from the simple love of books that makes the reader, and they will wander farther. It is a shame for them to take the boys in that direction. Have I set the standard too high when I say that the ideal teacher of literature is the mature scholar whose heart is young, whose love of books has been fostered by a love of life, whose enthusiasm in the classroom for his old favorites is unashamed? I must admit that there are very few examples of him.

III.

How does it fare with the teachers' own love of books? The fact seems to be that very few teachers of literature are habitual, enthusiastic readers of the books they blame their students for not reading. Their chosen companions are not Spenser, nor Shakespeare, nor Milton, nor Dickens, nor Thackeray. Of course, they know the books—like the old lady who had read the Bible—once. They know what the book is about. But through unfamiliarity they have forgotten the zest of the story, and by what device can they impart it? How often do you hear a teacher say comfortably, over his pipe or cigar, "Somehow Dickens doesn't take hold of me as he used to," in a tone that makes it look dark for Dickens; and then if your own delight in Mrs. Gamp or Mr. Pecksniff is undimmed, and you begin to defend your taste, you will find that the professor has not read Dickens recently. He will lecture to you about him, however, on the spot. The pity of it is that so often all that is needed to interest a boy in a book is a sincere way of intimate praise. In school during study hour Jim detects Bill with a non-academic volume under the desk, and starts inquiries, to which Bill responds from the nearest side of his mouth, "It's 'Tom Sawyer.' Gee, it's great!" And Jim is filled with the desire to read. Imagine the result if Jim's father had said at the dinner table, "James, I wish you to read 'Tom Sawyer'; every boy ought to read it. Some critics think Mark Twain our greatest novelist. The story is of the picaresque type," etc.

Finally, the teacher of literature should if possible be a writer. He needn't publish anything, but he should have the creative habit of mind, in no matter how humble a degree, the best self-protection against pedantry. The creative habit preserves the appreciation of literary expression for itself; what the poets might have said is less interesting to the creative mind than what they did say. May the number of writers who teach increase, as we realize the illumination, the fervor, the sanity of appreciation, that are fostered by habitual creative work. Even in Germany, where in our time the unimaginative mind has had its say of literature, the suggestion comes at last for poets to teach books. If such teaching seems a circumscribed task for a winged spirit, as it seemed to Lowell, at least it should not seem so to us who believe in the power of great ideals over a nation's destiny, and know how ignorant the newer generations are of books, wherein these great ideals are permanently stored.

The twofold reward of the poet-teacher's double calling is increased confidence and authority in his work. He pleads for his calling when he pleads for any book; to him the Muses are more than a name; he is their advocate to generous young hearts, open for a short time to noble persuasions, before they are calloused by the touch of the world. No wonder if he feels both the weight and the consecration of his office—to make of that short opportunity a tenfold talent; to plead for those voices of the race, of whose blood, however humbly, he is; to be the embodiment of that love which is the intercessor

Between the gods that live and mortal man.

To a few such teachers in this country how many of us owe how great a debt!

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To remember them is to be grateful.

JOHN ERSKINE.

Amherst College.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

William Butler Yeats is one of the living poets whose first editions are sought by collectors as likely to grow in value. John Quinn of this city, friend and correspondent of Yeats, has undoubtedly the most extensive collection of his writings. He has many of Yeats's manuscripts and many books inscribed by the author. Mr. Quinn has assisted Mr. Yeats in securing American copyrights, and has himself printed privately several pamphlets and books which are actually first editions. The following is a list of these pieces:

Where There Is | Nothing | A Drama | In Five Acts | By | W. B. Yeats | John Lane | MCMII. Collation: Half-title, title, dedication, etc., pp. i.-viii.; text, pp. 1-99. Fifteen copies only were printed for copyright, in a gray paper cover, the first page from the types of the title-page. A second edition of thirty copies only was immediately struck from the same type on larger paper, but without publisher's name on the title, and with some errors in the text corrected; in pale green boards, with label. These two editions contain a dedication to Lady Gregory dated September 19, 1902, never reprinted. The book was not published by John Lane, but by the Macmillan Co., which brought it out, with other plays, the next year, as "The Hour-Glass and Other Plays." This volume has a new dedication to Lady Gregory, dated February, 1903.

The | Hour-Glass | A Morality | By | W. B. Yeats | London | Wm. Heinemann, 21 Bedford St., W. C. | 1903. Collation: Title, copyright, and text, pp. 1-14; blank, pp. 15-16. From the type of the *North American Review* for September, 1903, with special title as above, and altered page-numbers, without cover. Twelve copies only, of which six went for English copyright; of the remaining six, two sent by mail to England were lost, one was retained by the printer, and Mr. Yeats, Lady Gregory, and Mr. Quinn each own one.

The King's Threshold | A Play in Verse | By | W. B. Yeats | New York | Printed for Private Circulation | 1904. Collation: Half-title, title, prologue, etc., pp. i.-ix.; text, pp. 1-58. In gray boards. One hundred copies only, on old hand-made Italian paper.

The Golden Helmet | By | William Butler Yeats | Published | By | John | Quinn | New York, 1908. Collation: Limit notice, half-title, title, etc., pp. i.-viii.; text, pp. 9-33. Gray boards, with label; fifty copies.

The two little volumes "Representative Irish Tales," G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1891, have an introduction by Yeats which has never been reprinted, and these two volumes are necessary in a set of his first editions. The two volumes of "Poetical Works," published in New York by the Macmillan Co. in 1906-07, are also first editions. The text was newly revised; each volume contains a new introduction; Vol. I., three new poems; and Vol. II., one new poem. The works were not issued in this form in England. Laurence & Bullen, Yeats's English publishers, have nearly ready a new and uniform edition of his works in eight volumes, limited to a thousand sets. The last volume will contain a comprehensive bibliography.

The Jahrbuch der Bücherpreise, of which the first issue, that for 1906, was a volume of only 237 pages, has appeared for the year 1907 (Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz) in a book of 414 pages, again with E. Beck as the author. It furnishes reports of the prices secured at the European book auctions, with the exception of the English. This new volume is particularly complete in reference to the literature of the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries.

The Anderson Auction Co. of this city has received from Ireland a small but choice collection of books relating to Napoleon and the French Revolution, mostly in French, the library of Gen. Daniel O'Connell.

E. Dwight Church of Brooklyn, the owner of one of the most valuable collections of rare books in this country, died August 30, at Westfield, Conn., in his seventy-third year. He was a graduate of the College of the City of New York.

Correspondence.

THE PERIL TO FRENCH SCHOLARSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Irving Babbitt in a letter to the *Nation*, July 2 (as also in a recently issued volume of essays: "Literature and the American College"), has suggested that we adopt the idea at least of the French *agrégation*—a higher degree, that is, conferred, not for premature specialization, but for thorough and continued work in the subject which the candidate for the degree seeks to profess. This seems to me one of the very few really pointed contributions to the discussion of our American graduate schools and their shortcomings that your correspondents have for so long been occupied with. Professor Babbitt notes in passing that a certain amount of "research" work is now demanded by students coming up for the *agrégation*, adding that this is, however, preceded by a solid grounding (in the case of literary studies) in the humanities, as also by a grounding in that subject elected by the candidate for the degree.

It is so obvious that we Americans need in some manner to react against existing conditions of graduate-school study and against the fallacies upon which programmes of work are founded (fallacies of "original research," of "contributions to the sum of human knowledge" by fledgeling or lop-sided investigators), and that in reacting against German tendencies the earlier French tradition may best serve to guide us, that one sees with something like consternation France, too, facing a crisis in methods of university instruction. To *L'Opinion*, a new weekly review issued at Paris, M. François Albert, himself *agrégé des lettres*, has just contributed two trenchant papers on "La Sorbonne germanisée" (July 18, August 8). His criticism of modern tendencies in the instruction offered at the Sorbonne must apply, and that ever more and more intimately, to conditions of higher education everywhere in France. Like the *Nation's* correspondents, M. Albert sees in premature specialization (here it is in specialization that immediately follows the attainment of the *baccalauréat*) more of peril than of profit. The student is taken out of the *lycée*, he writes, only to be taught to despise general culture, the sentiment for art (wherever found or applied) and the old-fashioned humanities—the best, that is, in the national tradition. He is, in a week's time after matriculation, set to work on the archives or the Corpus Inscriptionum Romanarum:

He is a votary of epigraphy before he knows his Greek and Latin authors. Every day youthful palæographers are set to work learnedly deciphering manuscript texts that they must realize they cannot so much as translate.

Anything to escape "æstheticism"—which is, to-day, a far lower condition than the state of blind ignorance.

Writing of an American "Ph.D." now teaching modern literature, Dr. S. P. Sherman has told the *Nation*, May 28, that this product of our "scientific" methods lectures to his classes on Rousseau's influence upon John Dryden. M. Albert, as if to cap the story (which is only too painfully authentic) tells *L'Opinion* of an honor-student's declaration that by the French Constitution of '75 the Chamber of Deputies elects the French ministers. "In twenty years," asserts this critic of "La Sorbonne germanisée," "our professorships will resemble our ministerial offices"—each professor serenely ignorant and contemptuous of what is going on in the lecture-room next to his own, as of what may have happened in other periods of literature or history than that which he has chosen for his own. And what are we to think of an examination for a *licence* to teach "history" where it is made up of three written tests, as follows:

Latin translation—2 points.
Composition on *Géographie humaine*—2 points.
Exercises in cartography—1 point.

The *licentia docendi*, the degree that precedes by some years the *agrégation*, and that formerly assured that grounding in the humanities which Professor Babbitt has commented upon as the possession of French *agrégés*, used to be awarded only after the passing of a general examination, which was more than a mere pendant to the examination in the special subject elected—the subject to be professed by successful candidates for this degree. To the fact that neither hasty cramming nor laborious lopsidedness (I have used some such phrase before: I repeat it wittingly) sufficed to prepare one for these examinations was in some degree due the general equipment which made French scholarship always respectable, and, at its best, admirably magisterial and philosophic. This year has seen the institution of a series of special licenses whence all general tests—except the Latin translation (under certain reservations)—have disappeared. The French composition has been entirely abandoned. "The qualities of order, clearness, and ease in the exposition of a subject are no longer found useful to an historian," the *Journal des Débats* remarks, with a fair degree of irony. But the practical effects of "scientific" inroads upon French literary and critical methods were seen many years ago: it was in 1880 that M. Stapfer wrote of contemporary Molière criticism:

All æsthetic study of his comedies was long since abandoned, and this great man is to-day . . . the object of nothing better than an arid erudition and a materialistic curiosity.

If there are to-day some signs of a reaction against these procedures, much ground remains to be regained in criticism as in the methods of higher education.

Fortunately, the picture of conditions in

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the Sorbonne is, in M. Albert's two articles, unmistakably overcolored. If matters are better than they appear to him, it is, however—and this the *Débats* remarks in the article cited, August 11—only because the French faculties "are living on their reserves. Some of the most rabid partisans of specialization are, themselves, men of a rare general culture, men who began their specialization after they had seen both sides of the humanistic training, the strong and the weak." But optimists, like the writer in the *Débats,* and our own philologists, do not seem to pose this question: What of the rising generation, and the generations to come? The generations of professors who have labored, as students, not to instruct themselves, but to "add to the store of human knowledge"?

Perhaps both French and American universities will soon be able to clear these problems up. We, who have as few traditions in higher education as in other matters, will blunder awhile, then see the light. But it must be regretted that France, that has its traditions, should, more alive to the sources of La Fontaine's fables than to their homely morals, drop the substance for the tricky reflection in the stream below.

W. B. BLAKE.

Au Fort Bloqué, Morbihan, France, August 13.

THE DATE OF SHAKESPEARE'S "LEAR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "The date of the composition of this play ["Lear"]," wrote Dr. Furnivall (the Variorum edition, p. 377), "can be ascertained with an unusual degree of accuracy." The Stationers' Registers, as he points out, fix the year 1606 as the latest date. The earliest possible date has been the cause of a good deal of difference of opinion. Malone thought long ago he had settled the question in favor of October, 1604, and with him agreed Mr. Fleay; Mr. Aldis Wright shifted it to the summer of 1606; then Dr. Furnivall and others decided in favor of 1603. In Act iii., Scene 4, are mentioned the names of various hobgoblins—Modo, Mahu, Flibbertigibbet— and these names are found in a tract published by Dr. Harsnet in 1603 (pp. 45-50). This argument assumes, of course, that these names of the goblins were in the first draft of the play, and also that Shakespeare could not have possibly found out about them before the publication of the tract. It is equally a matter of course, that no definite evidence whatever of either assumption has been or is likely to be forthcoming, and an historian like myself, approaching a literary problem, is at once struck with the futility of reaching any conclusion in the face of the danger that the few words on which we are relying may have been interpolated in 1603 or later into the printed version of a play written or acted any number of years previous that you will. Nevertheless, without some such assumptions, we should never date any doubtful plays at all. Let us confine ourselves to an examination of the evidence adduced from the tract, which Dr. Furnivall admits is really the only bit of proof "that is sure beyond a peradventure."

The history of this tract and of the story told in it seems to me suggestive. A Catholic priest named Weston asserted that he had performed certain miracles, casting out devils, and the like, and he used these "facts" to prove the superiority of Catholicism over Protestantism, and his own superiority over other priests. The "miracles" seem to have been performed in the years 1584-1586, while Harsnet's tract did not see the light till 1603. The real issue in 1603 was not so much the "miracles" as the right of Weston to the leadership of Catholics in England. In 1594-5 Weston became the leader of the Jesuit party in the "Wisbeach Stirs," a violent intestinal quarrel among the secular priests in England, and as a consequence all his previous history was well aired. Among other things, appeared the story of his miracle working, used by him and his friends to prove his great sanctity, and employed by his adversaries to cast slurs upon him. In 1598, at the time of the appeal to Rome by his opponents, the lives of all concerned were diligently raked for scandalous misdemeanors, and all their deeds told to Catholics from one end of England to the other as far as such news could be spread by the limited means of communication then possible. The miracle working formed the text of Weston's party. Then from 1600 to 1603 came the crisis. The party opposed to Weston secured the support of the English government, and began to publish tracts to discredit their enemies. Bancroft, then Bishop of London, determined to deal with Weston's performances himself, and in 1601 or 1602 set to work on the tract later published in 1603 (for state reasons) over the name of his chaplain, Dr. Harsnet. Helped by the appellant priests, Bancroft collected evidence of Weston's doings from priests and laymen who had witnessed or heard of them. His progress was noted from week to week by Father Rivers, the Jesuit, in his letters to his superior at Rome, so that it is pretty clear that the fact and its details were well enough known to the gossips of the metropolis.

Is it likely that the witnesses themselves had not told these stories before, and that the tale of Weston's miracles had not been rehearsed with all possible embellishments in many a tavern and ale house in London? And if not before 1600, most certainly before 1603? In fact, that was the very reason which decided Bancroft to write his tract: the currency which the story had attained. In truth, it is not at all unlikely that the story which Dr. Harsnet later published had acquired firmness and consistency by its oft-repetition, and had in the course of its growth picked up the names of certain well-known and "popular" fiends.

There seems, therefore, to be some reason to believe that Shakespeare could have heard the names of the fiends, Modo, Mahu, and their ilk, in the gossip of the inns on the South Bank. There is some reason to think, though of the slightest, that the poet may have known Bancroft, and there is somewhat more reason to think that his patron, Southampton, knew the bishop. The story may have come direct through them. That, however, is at best an unusually nebulous conjecture; and it seems to be far more probable that he should learn the names from intercourse than that he should cull them out of a long and tiresome tract by the chaplain of the Bishop of London. Others than he seem to have known about them: from the Variorum edition (p. 194, note) we find that Latimer used nearly identical names long before 1603; the spelling of the names in the various editions of "Lear" is not uniform, and some are very near the earlier spelling used by Latimer. Is there not quite as much reason to suppose that both the play and the tract used names in common usage as to assume that one drew upon the other? Mr. Staunton seems to suggest as much (Variorum, p. 198). It is also rather remarkable that Shakespeare might very well have heard the names in 1594-5, and that an unidentified play of "Lear" was published in that year. Might this be Shakespeare's first edition? We may as well assume they were present in 1594 as in 1603.

The rest of the evidence does not seem inconsistent with an earlier date for "Lear" than 1603. In truth, the word "British-man" for "Englishman," on which Malone relied, cannot be earlier than March, 1603, when James ascended the throne, though how Malone can deduce that it *could* not have been used before the proclamation of the royal title in October, 1604, is difficult for an historian to grasp, who knows how little common usage waits or depends on proclamations. That, however, is only one word, and may have been changed when the play was printed in 1606 or 1607.

I am quite well aware that I have merely piled up more conjectures upon an issue which can hardly be demonstrated one way or the other. We cannot, of course, prove that Shakespeare did not learn the names of the fiends from Harsnet's tract; but when we are at best conjecturing that he learned of them from that source, an even better conjecture seems to be supplied by the history of the tract itself.

ROLAND G. USHER.

Washington University, St. Louis, August 25.

REFORM IN LEGAL LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the movement for reform in legal language recently inaugurated in France—a matter referred to some time since in your columns—and of the fact that such a reform has long been vainly demanded by popular opinion in this country, some explanation of the nature of the reform and of the indifference of lawyers to the subject may be of interest. The indifference of the legal profession is due to the fact that the proposal is impracticable, and that the popular demand is based on a misconception. The language of the law is a subject upon which popular opinion is both ignorant and prejudiced. The general drift of that opinion was well epitomized in an editorial of the *Nation* of April 22:

> More than the windy philosopher or the quack doctor the man of the law traditionally holds the world enmeshed in his network of obscurities, redundancies, and obsolescences. And the bulk of humble opinion throughout the world and throughout the ages has been that the lawyer has developed and clings to his dialect solely with a view to his own profit.

This indictment of the legal profession and its technical language, though severe, doubtless fairly reflects the prevailing opinion. Yet nothing could be more erroneous than this opinion.

To one who is conversant with the needs

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and the history of legal terminology, the theory that any one of its many technical words was coined or kept in use by lawyers either "solely" or partly for their own profit is unthinkable. Most of the technical terms of English law were coined several thousand years ago; they were the product of the surpassing legal genius of the Romans, and they have expressed and preserved for future generations that vast store of legal wisdom found in the Roman civil law.

A thousand years or more after they had become embedded in Roman law, they began to be imported into English law, to give expression to the dawning legal conceptions of a young nation. And for centuries those Roman words and the conceptions for which they stood were invaluable in providing appropriate laws, for the growing state. In the course of its development English law thus imported from Roman law upwards of seventeen hundred words, nearly, if not quite, all of which met a felt want and served a useful purpose. Possibly a few terms were unnecessarily borrowed through pedantry or an affectation of Latinity, but the number is insignificant. The indebtedness of English law to Roman law in this regard is immeasurable. The adoption of Roman legal terminology with its corresponding legal conceptions not only gave to English law a terminology ready made, as it were, but also, in spite of insular prejudice and jealousy of Roman institutions and influence, enabled England, while maintaining her own peculiar institutions, to keep abreast in legal development with the Continental countries which adopted the civil law outright.

Like every other department of knowledge, legal science must have technical terms, and their meaning must be determined with absolute exactness. These exact meanings have been obtained at great cost, either by judicial decisions or legislative enactments; and words once given a definite legal meaning are necessarily clung to in a way which popular opinion is wholly unable to comprehend. The extent to which words have thus been given a fixed meaning is strikingly exhibited in a book recently published, consisting of eight volumes and containing no less than 132,000 judicial definitions. The value of these definitions is shown by the fact that of the more than 700 words in the will of the late Russell Sage only 35 had not been thus defined.

The popular notion, therefore, that lawyers originate and perpetuate technical words for their own profit, is grotesque. No lawyer of intelligence would do it if he could. On the contrary, probably the most profitable thing that could happen to lawyers would be a legislative enactment abolishing all technical terms and undertaking to express all existing laws in popular language. The uncertainty which would result would be a most prolific source of litigation. The "common language," as you well say, is "constantly slurring the meaning of words into broad and vague connotations," and for this reason it cannot express specialized thought with perfect accuracy.

HERBERT L. BAKER.

Detroit, August 18.

NAVAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON SHORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with interest the review of "The Art of Naval Warfare," by Admiral Sir Cyprian Bridge, in your issue of August 27. May I, as a layman, be permitted to express my dissent from the opinion involved in your reviewer's commendation of the author's dictum regarding naval establishments on shore?

> No portion of the naval expenditure of a country should be scrutinized more closely or incurred with greater reluctance than that devoted to their creation and expansion. . . . The number of government establishments of the kind in question should be kept as small as possible.

Let me say at the outset that I am heartily in accord with the *Nation* in its abhorrence of the movement to launch this country upon a career of boundless naval aggrandizement. To some extent, however, I do disagree with you in this, that, while the world-wide evil of continually increasing armaments cannot be too strongly denounced, I am willing to admit that when it comes to any particular country, say one's own country, the question of naval armaments still remains one to which there are two sides. There is nothing wild in maintaining that the United States ought to occupy a commanding position on the sea, and that it should be in a position to meet whatever may chance to come along. Now, what the *Nation* has reiterated time and again (and who can deny the justice of its contention?) is that the very existence of a large navy would tend more than anything else to involve us in international affairs inviting a resort to arms. President Roosevelt and his followers contend that an ample array of battleships is what is needed if we desire to maintain peace. Is it not possible to meet the advocates of this policy half-way without surrendering our position?

There would appear to be one way, and that is to provide ourselves with the means of bringing into existence at short notice an up-to-date navy of sufficient dimensions to render us invincible; in other words, to devote our main energies to the establishment of engineering works, capable of turning out fighting ships at a rate that could not possibly be equalled by an enemy not endowed with our extraordinary resources in iron and coal, and above all, money. Would not this kind of preparedness, whose attainment need not be at all to the prejudice of our fighting qualities, uphold the dignity of our flag as effectually as an immense fleet, with many of its members antiquated or obsolete? However moderate the annual addition to our fleet, the work of construction could be so distributed as to keep a corps of engineers and a body of artisans constantly in practice in each establishment.

With such a system of naval establishments, located on land-locked harbors, what power would ever deem us so unprepared for a conflict that it would be rash enough to provoke one? Our flag will be secure without a great navy as long as the world knows what resources are at our command. It has been so hitherto. In the days when we had no large fleet our flag was respected as it is now. The nations recognize the man behind the steam hammer as well as the man behind the gun.

L. H.

New York, August 31.

Notes.

The *Atlantic Monthly* for September contains the lecture, "Edwin Lawrence Godkin," which James Ford Rhodes delivered at Harvard, April 13.

The authorized "Life of Grover Cleveland" is to be written by his friend John Finley, president of the College of the City of New York. Mr. Finley asks that persons having letters or other memorials of Mr. Cleveland will kindly lend them to him. All manuscripts will be promptly copied, and the originals returned to the owner. Communications should be addressed: President John Finley, College of the City of New York, St. Nicholas Terrace, New York City.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. promise for September "The Character of Jesus," by Dr. Charles E. Jefferson; "The Wider Life" and "Evening Thoughts," by Dr. J. R. Miller; "Old Man Coyote," an Indian fairy book by Clara K. Bayliss; "The Fire-Fly's Lovers," a Japanese fairy book by William E. Griffis; and "Stories of Persian Heroes," by E. M. W. Buxton.

Henry Frowde has become joint publisher for the Early English Text Society, whose next volume, due in September—Extra Series CII.—will be the "Promptorium Parvulorum," the first English-Latin Dictionary, about 1440, edited from the manuscript in the Chapter Library at Winchester, with introduction, notes, and glossaries, by A. L. Mayhew.

The "Handbook of Learned Societies and Institutions," of which the first volume, covering America, has been issued recently by the Carnegie Institution of Washington, was one of the first undertakings proposed to the trustees by its advisory committee on bibliography. The work was entrusted to the Librarian of Congress, and has been in charge of J. David Thompson of the library staff and Mrs. Lucy C. Daniels Thompson. The present volume, of nearly six hundred pages, gives data concerning some five hundred societies and institutions, the latter including chiefly universities and natural history museums, but neither art museums nor libraries, though the admission of such libraries and art galleries as publish real contributions to knowledge would have enhanced the value of the work. The further omission of medical and agricultural societies and institutions, and of civic leagues must also be regarded as a serious drawback. Within its field, however, the book cannot fail to be highly appreciated by librarians and scientific workers in general. The information offered is just what one wishes to know in regard to the history and organization of each institution—its address and the name of its secretary, with list of its publications, both regular and special. A work of this kind has long been a desideratum, being, to quote Mr. Thompson's address before the Conference of Librarians at St. Louis, "an indispensable preliminary to bibliographical work in any region of knowledge." It is therefore a cause for surprise to find from the preface to the volume that the publication of the remainder of the material, which is all collected and ready for the press, seems to be indefinitely postponed:

> Pending decision as to further publication, the remaining material relating to so-

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cieties and institutions in the Old World will, for the present, be kept on file for consultation at the Library of Congress.

It would seem that the authorities of the Institution might regard themselves as under peculiar obligations to complete without unnecessary delay this work which has been so widely announced. But bibliography and anything that savors of it has apparently fallen into bad repute with the Carnegie Institution. The dictum of its president, that bibliography is merely "the platitude of science," was evidently quite seriously made: witness the discontinuance, after the issue of one volume, of the much-heralded annual bibliography of "Writings on American History," and the threat that the "Index Medicus" also will be discontinued, unless the medical profession comes to the rescue with financial aid. The Carnegie Institution is not a money-making concern, dependent for success on the sale of its publications. It was founded in aid of science as such, and it was expected to prepare and publish particularly such works as could not expect success as commercial ventures. One would certainly suppose that its authorities, before taking up a certain work, should count the cost, and, having begun it, should carry it to completion.

"American Business Enterprise: A Study in Industrial Organization," by Douglas Knoop (Manchester University Press), is a report made by the holder of a Gartside scholarship, as the outcome of a nine months' tour in the United States in 1906-7. Part i., consisting of a single chapter, sketches the general aspects of business enterprise in this country. In social equality and in the constant opportunities for rising in the industrial scale, the writer finds two of the main causes for the success of our industrial life. When he touches on the financial organization of industry he occasionally makes a mistake. On p. 29 he concludes that "when watering of stocks occur [*sic*], it is a much greater evil" in Great Britain than on "the other side of the Atlantic." This conclusion is based on the idea that "often the only people to lose are the promoters and underwriters" in the United States, whereas in England, the loss falls on "the general public, who bought the ordinary shares at par." Here one fears the Greeks, even when bearing such complimentary gifts. The better part of the work is the second, where an analysis is made of the structure of manufacturing industry, and of the relations between manufacturers, middlemen, and retailers. The size of industrial units in various lines of production is investigated with intelligence. The process of integration by which the manufacturer undertakes the making of preliminary products required for his main output, is well explained, and its advantages and limitations put sharply. The most instructive matter is the detailed explanation of the practice of various typical industries in marketing their wares. The range of methods, many of them mixed, runs from entire dependence on brokers, commission houses, or jobbers, without any attempt to prescribe retail prices, to the entire elimination of jobbers and the dictation of retail prices, which the Standard Oil Company has accomplished.

Ginn & Co. have just issued a handsome quarto entitled "The World's Commercial Products: A Descriptive Account of the Economic Plants of the World and of Their Commercial Uses," by W. G. Freeman and S. E. Chandler. It is a readable, non-technical account of vegetable products designed for human use. It contains a wealth of illustration, partly in colors, but mainly taken from photographs which give a vivid presentation of the varied processes of tilling the soil in all countries of the globe, and with all sorts of implements from the most primitive to the most complex. The exposition verges at times on the popular, even the naïve, rather than the scientific. An important omission is a summary of the commercial values and exportable surplus of the agricultural staples of different lands. The sole exception to the above stricture must be made in the case of wheat. It seems rather surprising that the important cattle foods obtain such cursory notice. Hay, for example, seems to be entirely overlooked, and the word *does not* appear in the index. The book contains a series of world maps indicating the geographical sources of each important product. These maps, together with the illustrations, are perhaps as valuable as the letterpress itself.

"Colonel Saunderson, M. P.," by Reginald Lucas (E. P. Dutton & Co.), describes an able man who yet was of only secondary importance in English politics, and who will not interest a very large number of Americans. He was a type of the great Irish land-holders, and in Parliament as a member from Ulster played the part of a stout Unionist, opposing home rule with might and main. In character he embodied quite picturesquely incongruous qualities; he had the usual tastes of a country gentleman, was an athlete, almost an acrobat, a perfect horseman, a skilled billiard player, a zealous yachtsman, constructing as well as sailing his boats; in quieter lines he sketched well, was a remarkable cartoonist, and famed as a wit in the London clubs; with all this he was assiduous in Parliament, a well-informed and ready debater against Gladstone or whatever radical champion might present himself. To crown all, he was devotedly religious after the evangelical type, praying and exhorting among circles high and low. His career was parallel with those of men like John Bright, Disraeli, Gladstone, Randolph Churchill, Parnell, John Morley, and Joseph Chamberlain. Though he was not in the first rank, to read this book puts one in close contact with men of the first rank and with the momentous events in English history for the past forty years.

Maria A. Hoyer's "By the Roman Wall" (London: David Nutt) is a mild and amateurish little book, fitly sub-titled, "Notes on a Summer Holiday." Two ladies spend a week or two in following the line of Hadrian's Wall, looking up, with praiseworthy zeal, all the discoverable antiquities, and thrilling pleasantly over all the associations.

Charles M. Doughty's "Arabia Deserta," a narrative of adventurous explorations in Central Arabia, was first published by the Cambridge University Press nearly twenty years ago. A condensation by Edward Garnett, under the title "Wanderings in Arabia," is now issued in two volumes of some three hundred pages each (imported by Charles Scribner's Sons). Mr. Garnett says in his introduction:

> While the learned world of European scientists devoted to the study of Arabia and its problems, geographical, geological, archæological, botanical, ethnological, and philological, has acknowledged its lasting debt to Mr. Doughty, both English literary men and the reading public at large have come into contact with the work scarcely at all.

This failure of the book to attract the general reader was due in part to the great length of the original edition and to the technical nature of much of the material. By excision of the passages of interest to the few Mr. Garnett hopes to show that this "may rank as a classic among the great travel books in our literature." These volumes are certainly of extraordinary interest. It must be said that the style presents some difficulties. The first fifty pages are hard reading; for the author is unduly fond of archæisms. But the reader, once he has fallen into the swing of the narrative, will find this a vivid and an absorbing picture of life among the wild Bedouins on the vast stretches of the Arabian deserts. With a few medicines, a few books, and a pistol in his bosom Doughty wandered from tribe to tribe and from oasis to oasis for more than two years. His hosts were fanatical Moslems, but he boldly avowed himself a Nasrâny, and though he had some narrow escapes from death, he seems to have charmed the most hostile by his frankness:

> It had cost me little or naught to confess Konfuchu or Socrates to be apostles of Ullah; but I could not find it in my life to confess the barbaric prophet of Mecca and enter under the yoke, into their solemn fools' paradise.

The characters and customs of these dwellers in the booths of black-hair are presented with many intimate details. Most readers will be struck by the numerous descriptions which recall passages in the Old Testament and throw light on the manners and beliefs of the ancient Hebrews. We might quote at length, but we choose only a single short passage:

> Sultry was our journey, and we alighted at half-afternoon, where we found shadows of some great rocks with tolh trees, and pasture for the camels. The men rested and drank coffee; the housewives also kindled fires and baked scanty cakes, under the ashes, of their last barley meal.

"The Meitheis," by T. C. Hodson, and "The Mikirs," by the late Edward Stack (the competent editor of both works is Sir Charles J. Lyall) are parts of a series of descriptive monographs on the more important tribes and castes of Assam, being published by the government of the province (London: David Nutt). The rare vestiges of prehistoric society are being rapidly swept away by advancing civilization—a railway now traverses the Mikir country—and accordingly the British officials are directed to collect information in regard to popular customs, religious beliefs, traditions, and government. Mr. Stack's work, interrupted by his premature death, is largely linguistic. He was enthusiastically aided by a bright young Mikir lad, a convert of the American Baptist Mission, who related many of the stories of which his people are very fond. Three of these tales are reproduced here, both in their original language and in an English translation. The best is a remarkably complete and interesting version of the widespread folk-tale of the Swan-

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maidens. The Meitheis are described as a "singular oasis of comparative civilization and organized society, set in a congeries of barbarous peoples." Agriculture is the chief occupation of the people. Widows may remarry, but the education of women has not made much progress:

The failure is not improbably due to the rumor, started by malignity and disseminated by stupidity, that as soon as the girls had been satisfactorily taught to read, write, and speak English, they were to be shipped off to England, where there was said to be a scarcity of marriageable women.

In this volume, which contains very minute details in regard to laws, customs, and religion as well as a section on language and grammar, there are also some folk-tales. Among these is the popular story of the distressful loves of Khamba and Thoibi, which is illustrated by reproductions in color of five interesting paintings by a native artist. The other illustrations are from photographs and chromo-lithographs, based on photographs. Each volume has also an excellent map and an index.

Students of German literature will read with interest Richard Urban's "Die literarische Gegenwart: 20 Jahre deutschen Schrifttums, 1888-1908," just published (Leipzig: Xenienverlag), with a portrait of Gerhart Hauptmann and a brief introduction by the Berlin novelist, Max Kretzer. The book gives a clear and concise survey of the evolution of German polite literature during the last twenty years, and the author shows fine discrimination, sound judgment, and praiseworthy impartiality in the selection of his material—a rather difficult task in treating contemporary writers.

A series of *Dorfbilder* from Transylvania, by R. Ziegler, containing poetical descriptions of rural life in winter and summer, has been published under the title "Wenn die Ähren reifen." (Berlin: Karl Curtius).

As the twentieth volume of the Bibliothek deutscher Schriftsteller aus Böhmen, Josef Bayer publishes a series of instructive literary essays, "Studien und Charakteristiken: Dramaturgisches und Erinnerungen an Persönlichkeiten" (Prague: Calve). The volume, which contains fifty essays and covers a variety of subjects, is really the second edition of the author's "Literarisches Skizzenbuch," issued in 1905.

David Neumark has published (Berlin: G. Reimer) the first volume of what promises to be a comprehensive work. "Geschichte der jüdischen Philosophie des Mittelalters nach Problemen dargestellt." This volume is devoted exclusively to an introduction, and to a discussion of the principles of this philosophy, both as to matter and form. The author presents an abundance of new data on the philosophical contents of post-Biblical Jewish literature, as also new interpretations of generally known facts, especially on the relation of Jewish thought to Platonism and Aristotelianism.

Of the conservative Kommentar zum Neuen Testament, edited by Prof. Theodor Zahn of Erlangen, Volume XI. has just appeared (Leipzig: A. Deichert). It contains an excellent explanation of Philippians, by Prof. Paul Ewald of Erlangen. Further volumes are announced by Prof. E. Riggenbach of Basel, and Prof. R. Seeberg of Berlin.

In a volume entitled "Katholizismus und Protestantismus in Geschichte, Religion, Politik und Kultur" (Leipzig: Quelle & Meyer) Dr. Karl Sell, professor of ecclesiastical history in the University of Bonn, treats the comprehensive and somewhat complicated subject, not from an apologetical or polemical, but from a strictly historical point of view, and with the scientific and tolerant spirit which those who are familiar with his numerous works would naturally expect. He traces the development of Catholicism and Protestantism from their origin to the present day, shows their influence upon political institutions and intellectual culture, and adds some appropriate remarks on the antagonism of the Pope to Modernism as officially expressed in the recent "Encyclica Pascendi."

A province of scientific research, in which Professor Sell has made some valuable studies, namely, the psychology of religion, has been specially investigated by Dr. Theodor Kappstein of the University of Berlin in his "Psychologie der Frömmigkeit" (Leipzig: M. Heinsius Nachfolger). One of the first German books on this subject was Vorbrodt's "Psychologie des Glaubens" (1895), but it attracted very little attention. The author then established the *Zeitschrift für Religionspsychologie*, which, after a time, awakened considerable interest in the subject.

The sixth and last volume of the "Norsk Forfatterlexikon, 1814-1880" (Lexicon of Norwegian Authors), by J. B. Halvorsen, has just been completed by the issue of the sixty-sixth fascicle, pages 657 to 750 of the sixth volume. The work has been coming out for twenty-seven years, and the author himself, who regarded this as the main task of his life, did not live to see it completed. The last two volumes have been made ready for the press, partly on the basis of the papers left by Mr. Halvorsen, but largely on the ground of independent studies by Dr. Halvdan Koht, one of the editors of Ibsen's letters. We reviewed Halvorsen's work in 1886 (July 22, p. 82) soon after the completion of the first volume, but the importance of the work justifies our reverting to it. It is indispensable to any thorough study of Norwegian literature of the nineteenth century. The method of publication necessitated some unevenness in the treatment of the different articles. Björnstjerne Björnson (62 pages), for example, is carried only to March, 1884, whereas Ibsen (93 pages) is complete to November, 1889. Both biographical and bibliographical data are given very fully. That the officials of Norway have had a high opinion of the value of this undertaking is shown by the fact that the authors, first Mr. Halvorsen and afterwards Dr. Koht, have for many years had a grant from the national treasury in order to enable them to devote their time entirely to this work. The publication has been carried on by an association of Norwegian publishers, since the cost of such an enterprise would be beyond the resources of an individual.

Of interest to phoneticians and dialect students is a booklet just published by Prof. Johan Storm of Christiania University, "Norsk Lydskrift" (Norwegian Sound Notation), giving also an outline of phonetics. The present booklet completes a treatise the beginnings of which were published in the defunct periodical *Norvegia*. Of special importance is the author's discussion of the production of vowel sounds. He takes issue with the opinion of Sweet and other English phoneticians as to the meaning of the terms "narrow" and "wide" in vowel formation.

At German universities this summer 3,594 foreigners matriculated, as compared with 3,861 last winter, and 3,766 last summer. For some time there has been a steady decrease. The foreigners now number only 7.5 per cent. of the entire attendance, as contrasted with 9.2 three semesters ago. According to studies the foreigners are divided as follows: Medicine, 944; philosophy, philology, and history, 826; mathematics and natural sciences, 630; law, 426; agriculture, 304. Of these students, Berlin has 869, Munich 566, Leipzig 504, Heidelberg 237, while Rostock has 19, Erlangen 32, and Münster only 10. Of the total number, 3,148 come from European countries, 252 from America, 179 from Asia—mostly Japanese—11 from Africa, and 4 from Australia.

The University of Heidelberg has a Journalistische Bibliothek, for which the funds were collected during the past twelve-months. It is established by Prof. Ad. Koch, in commemoration of the completion of the first decade of his Journalistisches Seminar. The Verein Deutscher Zeitungsverleger has agreed to furnish the bulk of the material for research in the history, etc., of journalism.

Brussels has in late years become the headquarters of so many international societies, that an Office Central des Institutions Internationales has been opened, and a Bulletin is being published.

The Rev. Dr. Charles Taylor, who had been master of St. John's College, Cambridge, died at Nuremberg, August 12. He was born in 1840 and educated at Kings College School, London, and St. John's, Cambridge. His early work was in mathematics, and from 1862 to 1867 he was one of the editors of the *Messenger of Mathematics*, but he was more distinguished as a Hebrew scholar. Among his publications are "Geometrical Conics" (1863), "The Elementary Geometry of Conics" (1872), "The Dirge of Coheleth Discussed and Literally Interpreted" (1874), "Sayings of the Jewish Fathers" (1877), "An Introduction to the Ancient and Modern Geometry of Conics" (1881), "The Teaching of the Twelve Apostles" (1886), "An Essay on the Theology of Didache" (1889), "The Witness of Hermas to the Four Gospels" (1892), "The Oxyrhynchus Logia and the Apocryphal Gospels" (1899), "The Oxyrhynchus Sayings of Jesus" (1905), and "The Shepherd of Hermas in Early Church Classics" (1903-6). He edited a number of texts, and contributed to dictionaries of the Bible, the "Encyclopædia Britannica," the *Journal of Philology*, the *Journal of Theological Studies*, the *Jewish Quarterly Review*, and the *Alpine Journal*.

The Rev. Dr. John Robson, one of the founders of the Rajputana Mission and moderator of the Synod of the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland, 1899-1900, died last month at Lochranza, Arran. Among his publications are "Hinduism and Chris-

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tianity," "The Bible: Its Revelation and Inspiration," "The Holy Spirit, the Paraclete," "Primer of Missions," and "Jeremiah the Prophet."

Dr. Rudolf Ehlers has died at Frankfort at the age of seventy-four. He was one of the editors of *Zeitschrift für praktische Theologie*. Among his publications are "Das alte Gesetz und die neue Zeit" (1877), "Bilder aus dem Leben des Apostels Paulus" (1886), "Aus festlichen Stunden: Von Advent bis Pfingsten" (1895), and "Das apostolische Glaubensbekenntnis" (1898).

Giuseppe Chiarini, who died early in August, in his seventy-eighth year, was one of the few Italians who have seriously concerned themselves with foreign literature. Goethe, Körner, Burns, Shelley, Byron, and Swinburne were among the authors he may fairly be said to have introduced to modern Italy. Heine enlisted his especial enthusiasm, and he was an assiduous translator of the poet of the "Lieder." Chiarini was the life-long friend of Carducci, and perhaps his best-known work is the defence of the metres of "Odi barbare." In "Lachrymæ," Chiarini essayed himself a poetry of proselike simplicity which made its stir, but has held few admirers. D'Annunzio's early work enlisted his enthusiasm, a mood soon exchanged for bitter condemnation of the later volumes. Like so many literary men in Italy, Chiarini was most of his life in the public service, holding an important position under the Ministry of Public Instruction. Not a great writer, he was a cultivated, persuasive, and useful critic.

Anton Giulio Barrili, the novelist, died at Genoa August 15, in his seventy-first year. As soldier, journalist, novelist, and professor, he represented perfectly the exuberant vitality of the young generation that made United Italy. He fought with Garibaldi in '59, '66, and '67 (Mentana), was editor of an influential Genoese paper, *Il Movimento*, in his twenty-second year. His novels are reckoned by the dozens, and most of them have gone through many editions. "L'Olmo e l'edera," "Come in sogno," and "La Notte del commendatore" may be named as among the more popular. He was thoroughly saturated with the sentimentalism of his generation, and none of his works seem likely to live. A most attractive figure as a man, he was beloved by his students and readers. A year ago last January the press and literary men of Italy joined in a remarkable testimonial to him. His too fluent novels often showed a whimsical and spontaneous humor, a quality very rare in modern Italian letters.

NOTES ON TEXT BOOKS.

"Lives of Great English Writers" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), by Walter S. Hinchman and Prof. Francis B. Gummere, is put forth with a hope of usefulness to the student and to the general reader. The book, which is well-indexed and provided with a select bibliography, consists of thirty-four biographical essays on representative writers from Chaucer to Browning. The various periods of literary history are connected by short links suggesting the character of the transitions. The preface anticipates criticism for sins of omission and inclusion; otherwise we should complain that the gulf between Chaucer and Raleigh is not so void as the absence of any representative makes it appear; that the minor poets of the seventeenth century are too numerous and too significant to neglect; and that of Richardson, Fielding, Smollett, and Sterne at least one should be included. At the same time, of those chosen we should hesitate to reject one. As for the treatment of the individual writers, the collaboration of Mr. Hinchman and Professor Gummere seems happy. There is no rhapsody, there are many facts, and the style is clear, competent, and animated. In so far as they have lived up to their intention to avoid "barren formulas and catch-words about æsthetic values" and "all literary criticism save that which serves to characterize the writers and give them their due places"—in so far they have sacrificed the general reader. But their intention frequently relaxes into vivacity and, occasionally, into unsoundness. For example, Professor Gummere says of Shakespeare: "He was neither a great moralist, nor, to use Matthew Arnold's phrase, 'a friend and aider to those who would live in the spirit' "—a bit of purely "personal" criticism against which many readers of Shakespeare would heartily and justifiably protest. Such lapses, however, are exceptional. In general, the criticism is sound, conservative, and illuminating, and the book should do good service. "Teachers' Outlines for Studies in English," by Gilbert Sykes Blakely (American Book Company), is a useful little manual adapted to a specific purpose and free from nonsense. It is based on the requirements for admission to college, and offers a simple and sensible method for elementary study of the novel, narrative poetry, lyric poetry, the drama, and the essay. Under each of these literary forms are outlines with questions and suggestions on a representative group of books from the required list. There is also an appendix containing specimen entrance examinations in English from various leading colleges.

"English Poems" by Edward Chauncey Baldwin and Harry G. Paul, assistant professors of English literature at the University of Illinois (American Book Co.), is an anthology of 333 pages extending from Chaucer to Tennyson with 65 additional pages of notes. The authors offer a timely apology for putting another collection of this sort before the public; but they believe that questions and information included in the notes will make the book useful to teachers and students. Some of their questions are easier to ask than to answer; but they will serve well enough to start the ball rolling, and will doubtless be welcomed by many teachers who cannot see what there is to ask about lyric poetry. Miss M. Bentinck Smith has edited for school use the much-edited "Prologue" and "Knight's Tale" of Chaucer (Cambridge University Press). The editorial work is full and competent, but naturally not very original. The introductory matter includes an outline of Chaucer's grammar and metre, and there are notes and a vocabulary. Browning's "Strafford," edited by Hereford B. George (Henry Frowde), is a satisfactory reading edition of the play, supplied with a brief introduction, a few notes, and a bad preface. Mr. George was evidently much at a loss for an excuse to publish when he hit upon the idea that the upper forms in the schools "should see for themselves that the greatest of English dramatists is not the only one." It is well, indeed, that pupils of the upper forms should know that Shakespeare is not the only English dramatist; but it is not well that they should think Browning the best or even the most available of the other dramatists; for any pupil with sufficient maturity and vigor of intellect not to think "Strafford" dull could safely be introduced to a dozen English writers far above mediocrity who are much better representatives of the dramatic tradition than Browning. The edition is attractive enough, however, to dispense with the preface.

"Argumentation and Debating," by Prof. William Trufant Foster of Bowdoin (Houghton, Mifflin Company), is one of the most satisfactory books in this field. A pupil of Prof. George P. Baker, the pioneer in reducing argumentation to a teachable art, Professor Foster shares with his former teacher a conviction of the vitality of the subject. His book is therefore not an academic formulation of principles; it is an inside view of the art presented by one conversant with all its difficulties and delights. While it insists rigorously upon method, order, and system, as the "backbone of argument," it avoids all pedantries of classification and terminology, and addresses itself strictly to practical ends. It shows, for example, precisely how to get to work at analyzing the proposition—one of the most difficult tasks for the beginner. A copious appendix gives specimens of analysis, briefs, material for briefing, a forensic, and a complete specimen debate, a model for instruction to judges and for the formation of a debating league, together with 275 debatable propositions. In conclusion we cannot help remarking that this is in the best sense of the word a very moral book: a course founded upon it would have none of the musical and knicknackical qualities of the "literary" curriculum, but would make certainly for the discipline of will and reason and the formation of character.

Chardenal's "French Course" (Allyn & Bacon) was for many years one of the most successful textbooks for the study of French. Of late it has been somewhat pushed aside by more "scientific" methods. It has now been revised and rewritten by a competent teacher, M. S. Brooks of the Brookline (Mass.) High School, and will probably renew its youth. The value of Chardenal's Course depends on its sometimes tedious, but nevertheless useful, drill by constant repetition. "Selected Poems by Victor Hugo," prepared by Prof. A. Schinz of Bryn Mawr, is one of the most satisfactory of the recent issues in Heath's Modern Language Series, and does not suffer, as some other advanced texts in the same series, from undue parsimoniousness of selection or of editing. These extracts are appropriate, well grouped, and accompanied by suitable comment, including introductory pages on Hugo's influence on French verse. The latest volumes in the Oxford Higher French Series (Henry Frowde) are marked by the same creditable standard of criticism and annotation as their predecessors. The gathering into one volume of Sainte-Beuve's essays on Cor-

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neille, Racine, and Molière was a happy thought. The selections from Théophile Gautier's poetry, from Quinet, and particularly from the writings of Auguste Angellier, will appeal to a somewhat smaller set of initiated teachers and students. The choice of editors such as Prof. Émile Legouis and Charles Cestre of Lyons, of whom the latter got part of his training, by the way, in America, guarantees scholars at home both in French and in English.

Among new German text-books one may pick out Prof. O. Heller's edition of Baumbach's "Der Schwiegersohn" (Henry Holt & Co.), with its amusing sidelights on German educational manners and customs as well as bourgeois prejudices; and also Prof. L. A. Rhoades's "Selections from Schiller's Ballads and Lyrics" (American Book Co.). Both books are accompanied by exercises and elaborate vocabularies. In the case particularly of Schiller this concession, of late so prevalent among our publishers, to the physical inertia of American schoolboys and their aversion to the use of genuine dictionaries, is to be regretted.

An interesting event is the publication of a complete annotated edition of Terence (Henry Frowde). Heretofore no such edition has been issued in this country. In England many years ago Wagner attempted the task, but this work has long been out of date in both text and metre. In Germany, too, no editor has in recent times published notes to all the plays. Prof. S. G. Ashmore of Union College has therefore done a real service in preparing this complete edition, with an introduction of sixty-eight pages, the Suetonian life of Terence, 319 pages of notes, and a careful index. For the first time teacher and student have in a single volume a variety of material which is indispensable to a proper study of Terence. For example, the prologues throw a flood of light on the relations subsisting between Terence and his contemporaries, and on the human jealousy felt by his less successful rivals. They aid also to a right conception of Terence's consummate art. In these prologues Terence tells us himself that he had practised *contaminatio; i. e.*, that he had combined materials from two or more Greek plays. Yet modern scholarship has been unable to find the joints where the materials have been put together. Professor Ashmore's book is marked by sanity, by care, by fine literary instinct, for Professor Ashmore is master of an excellent English style, something all too rare in classical text-books. The introduction discusses clearly and well such topics as the history of Greek and Roman comedy, the plays of Terence, Terence's influence upon literature, and the production of plays. In no English book are these matters treated, on the whole, with greater fulness. If there be any serious defect it is that the introduction does not contain a detailed treatment of the language and style of Terence. This defect is offset, however, by the abundant references to such topics in the notes. A meritorious edition of Æneid I.-VI. has been prepared by Prof. H. R. Fairclough of Leland Stanford University and S. L. Brown, principal of the Wellesley High School (B. H. Sanborn & Co.). The introduction treats sympathetically Virgil's life, writings, and character. One rather questions the value of the list of the terms with definitions for figures of rhetoric and syntax. It seems better to omit most of such terms from elementary teaching; they often prove a bar to right thinking and true apprehension. The notes lay stress on the literary and artistic aspects of the Æneid. In a very attractive volume Henry Frowde has published a translation by W. H. Fyfe of Merton College of the minor works of Tacitus (the "Dialogus de Claris Oratoribus," the "Agricola," and the "Germania"). Mr. Fyfe's translation reads uncommonly well; it gives, save for a few details (wherein, perhaps, personal bias for certain interpretations affects the reviewer), a faithful reproduction of the original, if one allows that the peculiarly Tacitean style is incapable of exact reproduction in English. Prefixed to the translation is a brief introduction; there are also a few pages of notes. Mr. Fyfe accepts the "Dialogus" as by Tacitus; he gives no hint that its authorship has ever been called in question. Mr. Fyfe also indicates well the development of Tacitus's style, from the partial Ciceronianism of the "Dialogus" to the characteristic rhetoric of his later works. He holds that the "Agricola" is a defence of a party, of the "dreary provincials, whose careful ways and prudent middle course offended and rather disgusted the Roman aristocrats." Mr. Fyfe does not believe that Tacitus had personal knowledge of the German tribes:

> He writes always with an eye on Roman society. It is rather as if a modern English satirist should embody his criticism of London manners in a popular pamphlet on Boer society.

H. C. Pearson's "Latin Prose Composition" (American Book Company), based on Cæsar and Cicero, originally published in 1903 in a single volume, has been reissued in two volumes. It is thought that in its present form the work will better serve the needs of the schools, in which the work in Cæsar and that in Cicero come usually in different years. The books seem to be the result of an effort to gain the advantages claimed for a composition manual based on the text which the pupil is reading, while meeting the main criticism that works of that type render systematic development of syntactical knowledge and orderly grasp of vocabulary impossible. The student is warned to rely for the Latin words he needs on the text of Cæsar or Cicero, not on the English-Latin vocabulary (of fifteen pages) printed at the close of each book. But the inclusion of such a vocabulary seems an admission that the books will prove ineffective in an important part of the plan on which they are made.

The increasing attention paid to Greek archæology has led to closer study of Pausanias, the Greek traveller of the second century. Since 1896 at least two critical editions of the text have appeared in Germany, one equipped with a commentary. In England Frazer has produced a monumental work in six volumes, giving a translation of Pausanias's entire work and discussing many points in detail. Mr. Frazer has also published a useful book entitled "Pausanias and Other Sketches." In this country Pausanias has not been accessible for ordinary reading courses or ordinary students of Greek topography until Prof. Mitchell Carroll of the George Washington University brought out a book entitled "The Attica of Pausanias" (Ginn & Co.). The text of Book i., the most important of the ten books, covering Pausanias's account of Attica and of the neighboring districts of Eleusis and Megara, is printed entire. The introduction deals briefly but well with Pausanias's life and work, his style, and the question of his indebtedness to earlier authors. Professor Carroll holds that Pausanias is essentially trustworthy, that Pausanias saw with his own eyes most of the things of which he writes. There is an elaborate topical outline of the Attica, which will help the reader to "follow the somewhat tortuous course of the author." The notes are mostly archæological in character. The appendix deals with the manuscripts and with various works treating of Pausanias in general and of Attica in particular. There is also a select bibliography in connection with the twelve excursuses, which deal with such subjects as the Agora of Athens, the Enneacrounos and its neighborhood, the so-called Theseum, the Parthenon, and the old Athena temple, topics which the editor found it impossible to treat adequately in the notes. Professor Carroll presents the several problems concisely and states his own conclusions clearly. In most matters he agrees with Dörpfeld. Altogether the book should prove decidedly useful.

The growing list of collections of source material in English for the elementary study of mediæval history receives a worthy addition in Frederic A. Ogg's "Source Book of Mediæval History" (American Book Company). The selection, which covers the period from the invasions to the early Renaissance, has been made on the principles of subordinating purely documentary matter to narrative pieces, such as annals, chronicles, and biography; and of giving a few passages at length rather than many in fragmentary form. Valuable and distinctive features are the introductions to the various extracts and an unusually full provision of explanatory footnotes. The personal equation in compilations of this sort is so far entitled to respect that criticism of what has been included or omitted ought always to be restrained; but we cannot help wishing that the economic life and the culture of the Middle Ages had found fuller treatment in Mr. Ogg's book, and that the "foreshadowings of the Reformation" had not been confined to a single indication—the reply of Wyclif to the summons of Pope Urban VI.

We cannot but think that the multiplication of such books as the "Outline for Review: American History," by Charles B. Newton and Edwin B. Treat (American Book Company), must tend, in the long run, to the injury of historical instruction in the schools. While even the best teacher may profit by seeing how fellow-members of the craft do their work, a book of ready-made outlines like this is too often an irresistible temptation to the ignorant or indifferent teacher to neglect that which he ought eventually to do for himself. Moreover, such "aids," especially when, as in this case, the subject matter of the outline is quite devoid of distinction, go far to confirm in both teacher and pupil the pernicious impression that history has been learned when a classified collection of incidents, names, and dates has been mastered. A further serious objection to the present volume is the lite-

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rary, or unliterary, form in which much of the outline material is couched. Titles, dates, phrases, and names are interspersed with half-formed or incomplete sentences in a way admirably fitted to demoralize the pupil's style and make trouble for the English department; for if this sort of thing is good enough for a book, why is it not good enough for a theme? On the whole, we think the volume might better have been dispensed with. Prof. A. B. Hart's "Manual of American History, Diplomacy, and Government" (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University) is a revision and expansion of material embodied in four earlier publications issued as "Outlines," "Suggestions for Students," "Revised Suggestions," and "Hand-Book," but with the historical portion brought down to 1898. The scheme includes both long and short courses in each of the three fields indicated in the title, with classified lists of readings under each topic, some hundreds of subjects for written reports, selected lists of authorities, both primary and secondary, and detailed directions for the use of books and libraries and the preparation of written work. As compared with its predecessors, the "Manual" gives increased prominence to economic, social, and diplomatic interests. Professor Hart has the faculty of showing the student how to work without at the same time doing the work for him; and the present volume, whether as an aid to teachers in the organization and conduct of systematic courses, or as a hand-book for students in connection with lectures, is easily without a rival for orderly arrangement, bibliographical completeness, and practical helpfulness. The only drawback is the absence of an index.

Robert H. Fuller's "Government by the People" (The Macmillan Co.) is a useful description, in systematic and rigidly condensed form, of the laws and customs regulating the American electoral system and party organization and work. The details of divergent practice are carefully summarized, with only so much reference to historical development as is necessary to explain current usage; while the New York system is set forth at length by way of concrete illustration. The account of the organization of the Republican and Democratic machinery in New York city is one of the best that we have seen, and ought to be read by every voter. The scheme of the work forbids much in the way of reflection or comment, but the author does not fail to point out the inseparable connection between politics and morals, and the responsibility of the citizen for party wrongdoing. The book should prove useful for reference, and for instuction in college courses in government. An appendix gives the party platform of 1904.

Never before was rivalry in the production of textbooks of elementary mathematics so intense. The competition has already resulted in marked improvement in depth, clarity, and elegance of exposition, and in dignity of content. Not only have certain traditional themes of the elementary books been found too advanced for the beginner, but, on the other hand, the elements of many inspiring doctrines, as the theory of point-sets or that of the complex variable, hitherto reserved for graduate years, have been found available for sub-freshman instruction. Indeed the contrast between the very best of the recent books, such as Fine's "College Algebra," Halsted's "Rational Geometry," and W. B. Smith's "Introductory Modern Geometry," and the best of their predecessors of a generation ago, is comparable to that between the automobile and the ox-cart. The "High-School Algebra" (Boston: Allyn & Bacon), by Profs. H. E. Slaught and N. J. Lennes, is in two separately bound parts, elementary and advanced. The former is chiefly notable for its felicitous presentation of algebra, in accordance with the Newtonian conception, as an easy and natural generalization of arithmetic, formal argumentation being reserved for the advanced course. In this the march of formal thought, beginning with an exquisite treatment of the fundamental laws, is relieved by fresh examples and applications. While the authors have lucidly explained the incomplete traditional view of mathematical induction, they have not set it in modern light. We regret that this mode of argument, which no less an authority than Poincaré regards as mathematical reasoning *par excellence*, finds no place at all in the 438 pages of the "Elementary Algebra" (D. Appleton & Co.), by Profs. J. W. A. Young and L. L. Jackson. This book might besides have admitted the binomial theorem in place of a superabundance of exercises, summaries, reviews, and other excesses of pedagogical virtues. In many respects, as in the treatment of graphs, for example, the book is up to date; but the properties of zero are entitled to earlier recognition than that accorded on page 432. Harold Hilton's "Introduction to the Theory of Groups of Finite Order" (Henry Frowde) does not pretend to widen the borders of its great field, but it admirably opens it to those whose mathematical knowledge does not extend beyond elementary algebra and number theory, and it conducts them in various directions far beyond the gate. The method is mainly that of examples, the abstruser and longer demonstrations being for the most part omitted, though the recent theory of group-characteristics, due to the wondrously subtle genius of Frobenius, is accorded the recognition of a brief chapter. "A Study of Mathematical Education" (Henry Frowde), by Benchara Branford, is a work the reading of which is sure to delight those who find inspiration and a kind of light in the atmosphere of normal schools and teachers' colleges. For within its 392 compactly printed pages one finds no end of pedagogical methodology, educational psychology, historical citation beginning with Thales of Miletus (600 B. C.), tracing "the evolution of zero," the "evolution of geometric axioms," and many other evolutions, all woven together with rare skill, genuine platitude, unfailing patience, and infinite enthusiasm. The "Scrap-Book of Elementary Mathematics" (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company), by Prof. W. F. White, though it is inferior in some respects to Schubert's "Mathematical Essays and Recreations," is yet a miscellany well worth having both on account of the mathematical curiosities it has brought together out of a space of more than two thousand years, and on account of its enlightened comment upon them. It deals indeed with more than D'Israeli's "six follies of science," not confining itself to follies or to impossibilities of the circle-squaring type, but including in its medley of seventy topics many other points of interest and even critical importance in modern mathematics, as, for example, linkages and straight-line motion, and the instruments allowed by Plato in simple constructions.

"General Physics," by Henry Crew of the Northwestern University (The Macmillan Co.), is well adapted for first-year college students. On the whole, it is rather more elementary than most of the recent books on this subject, and the science is presented more as a descriptive than a mathematical study. If the book errs, it is from too great a subordination of the latter branch of the science. Professor Crew does require problems and gives the equations necessary for their solution, but he rarely develops them. While mathematics is taught in college purely as a symbolic science, students in physics and the other mathematical sciences must acquire in the physics' class room familiarity with mathematical formulæ. It is difficult to see how this can be done unless the equations illustrating physical laws are systematically derived and conveniently emphasized in text-books on physics. On the other hand, the general treatment of the subject is original and carefully worked out. Recent and controverted points are wisely omitted in order that full justice may be done to the classical and historical development of the science. Interest also in the personal work of the great masters is aroused by well chosen references to their achievements. The book is unusually accurate and free from misprints. The style is simple and clear; different sizes of type make consultation easier. In "Electricity; What Is It?" (The Macmillan Co.) W. Denham Verschoyle attempts to explain popularly the nature of matter and electricity, and the evolution of organic and inorganic substance. He so mixes reliable experimental knowledge with abstruse hypotheses, which are, to say the least, still disputable, that the reader is left quite bewildered. It is to be expected that speculative generalizations will be made from the properties of the radio-active bodies and the theory of the electrified corpuscle, but there is no justification in throwing away all restraint and sobriety, as if the key to the universe had finally been put into our hands. Nature still has her mysteries, and the writer should not have forgotten Lord Kelvin's modest statement that he knew no more, at the end of his life, of the real nature of electricity, than when he began to study it.

CURRENT FICTION.

Halfway House: A Comedy of Degrees. By Maurice Hewlett. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is rather disconcerting at first sight to find Mr. Hewlett, with his romantic trunk-hose discarded, ambling through the artificial figures of genteel modern comedy in the white spats and waistcoat of George Meredith. Superficially the transformation seems radical. But, after all, was Mr. Hewlett's earlier mediævalism, so to call it, ever anything more than polite masquerade? To be sure, it looked big and blunt and burly; but the actors were at bottom our familiars and

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no more elemental than the rest of us —only rather more cleverly made up and more than usually exhilarated by the robustiousness of their rôle and the brilliancy of the footlights and other theatrical accessories. Even the tragedy and the passions owed a good deal to stage illusion; while what was really genuine was exactly this same treachery of nerves and instinct which still marks the character of the heroine and her elderly husband in the "Halfway House," and which is as modern as it is anything else.

Nor is the gap between the sensational and the artificial so wide as it seems at first. Even Mr. Meredith was unable to keep the melodramatic wholly out of his comedy. And in much the same way, now that Mr. Hewlett has changed his vein, the centre of his new novel, despite gaiters and waistcoat, is claimed for romance and wonder by the picturesquely dishevelled figure of the gentleman-vagrant and social *révolté*, Senhouse, a kind of immature and attenuated Tolstoy—a younger brother, as it might be, with little taste for the asperities of Sinai and a decided preference for bedecking its austere declivities with transplanted wild flowers.

Unfortunately, however, it is impossible to rid one's self of a suspicion that this gentleman's unconventionality, too, is largely a matter of costume. Even his bare head and feet and his inveterate habit of trespassing on other people's property are not quite convincing. There is something strangely familiar in the tone of his philosophy and his talk of the natural life. He has been to college and read too much; and though he may have succeeded in divesting himself of a little superfluous clothing preparatory to entrance upon this tale, he has been less successful in putting away his dilettanteism. Thanks to this gentle apparition and his influence upon the susceptible heroine—herself a sufficiently puzzling combination of naïveté and shrewdness, the unhappy proprietor of a simple head and a troubled heart, with a perfect genius for impossible situations, who marries one man while committed with another, and contrives in some mysterious way to have her emotional reserves in favor of a third, to say nothing of numerous flirtations in the dubious background—the story gradually develops an air of coquettish and exasperating unreality. No doubt, there is comedy somewhere at the core of it, as Mr. Hewlett obligingly suggests —it is always infinitely amusing to the bystanders to find the *ingénue* less ingenuous than she is supposed to be by the susceptible old gentlemen whose heads she has momentarily turned. But it is, after all, the inadvertent comedy of circumstance and accident, as things fall out, ludicrous enough, but without any very intelligible motive.

Weeping Cross. By Henry L. Stuart. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

One is left wondering at the end of this "Unworldly Story" whether its aftermath of unpleasantness is due to the author's weakness or to his misdirected strength. In either case he has not given fair treatment to his—can we say his hero? Granted that the young Irishman, half cavalier, half Jesuit, and all violent weakling, is neither an admirable nor a lovable character, there is surely all the more crying need for broad sympathy in his portrayal. One cannot but feel that Mr. Stuart despises his puppet in his heart, and pulls the strings with a sneer. The unfortunate hybrid's alternating spasms of hysterical piety and equally hysterical passion are revealed with an undertone of mocking relish that repels the reader even more than the unnecessarily minute descriptions of physical torture that enliven the pages. Of the lofty quality of Agnes's love for so ignoble an object one is allowed hardly a conjecture until her really beautiful dying words proclaim her a sister of Solveig. Made earlier, this revelation might have redeemed Agnes in the reader's eyes, but as it stands, it comes after too much detail of moral squalor to seem other than an incongruity. In the description of wood and river the author is at his best; when the human element appears, "Weeping Cross," for a study of souls, wears somewhat too gross a vesture of flesh. With more restraint of manner and maturity of thought, Mr. Stuart's vivid fancy gives promise of work of real value.

The Power Supreme. By Francis C. Nicholas. Boston: R. E. Lee Co.

The author, professing to reproduce the story of a Spanish Indian guide, has constructed what he calls "a novel of Church and State in South America," an account of "the disorganized political and social conditions in Spanish America," existing shortly after our own Civil War, "conditions which, happily, are gradually improving under the guiding influence of the United States." His story is unusual and interesting. On its descriptive side it is a striking picture of a tropical region—forest, jungle, and stream, city and village, the Catholic college, and the great rubber industry that involves the subsistence and the fortunes of man, woman, and child, priest and people, Spaniard and Indian.

Besides this, there is in the autobiographic narrative of the half-breed Joaquin—mighty giant, trapper, rubber-hunter, warrior, scholar of St. Joseph's —an epitome of the story of savagery and civilization; a savagery intensified by Spanish ill-usage and ecclesiastical oppression; a civilization painfully evolved in long, unrecompensed suffering, and only hinted at in the concluding sentences. The Indian characteristic is never lost sight of in Joaquin's story; neither frailty nor merit is slighted. He never forgets to hate his Spanish father or the priests who trick him. He will plot, cheat, and kill, but he will not break faith with a benefactor. He is tender to children, but like all his neighbors, he beats "his woman" as naturally as he would correct a wayward dog. The author leaves him on the steep and painful path of redemption and draws the moral that for individual, state, or race, there is no security except under social conditions "founded on upright homes and honored maternity."

The way of the book lies along the path of wild adventure, cruelty, and wickedness; but as a sincere and serious record of a day and a race and an evil order of things, it has a painful interest and a grim value.

The Man Without a Head. By Tyler De Saix. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co.

It is a question whether the mere ingenuity of horror comes within the bounds of art; but whatever one's personal view, one cannot shirk the admission that such work has a reading public of its own, ready to encourage an increasing output. "The Man Without a Head" will doubtless find many admirers, as it is good of its class. The author has the gift, invaluable to the contriver of a detective story, of plausibly allowing the reader's suspicion of the truth to precede that of the detective; not with gross obviousness, but with sufficient skill to make the resulting conviction of one's own astuteness genuinely if briefly satisfactory. But the murderer's device for concealing his crime, while indubitably clever, would insure almost immediate detection of any unfortunately trustful homicide who sought to put it in practice. The story of it moves with interest, however, even under the ballast of aphorisms sprinkled upon the pages with pedagogic heaviness of hand.

The Old Allegiance. By Hubert Wales. New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

The author is to be congratulated on having made a story of adventure which, though dealing with such familiar topics as the Jacobite allegiance, the dynamiter, and the government spy, has yet contrived to get itself invested with a dewy freshness. To begin with, the action takes place on that happy hunting-ground of romance, an island. Then the actors are two nice Oxford boys, a thirty-year-old widow cast for a quite original rôle, and a pleasant company of Zanies and desperadoes. The plot embraces the old-fashioned in loyalty and the modern in ruse with a certain respectful audacity which gives the little fantasy a saucy charm. Its ingenuity is not to be denied. Witness the episode

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of the man lashed to a box within which he hears the ticking of a dynamite fuse alarm, knowing it to be set to do its work at the end of ten minutes.

Catherine of Bragança, Infanta of Portugal and Queen-Consort of England. By Lillias Campbell Davidson. Pp. xviii. + 517. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5 net.

There have been few queens in history more unhappy than Catherine of Bragança, the queen of Charles II. of England. Brought up in the seclusion of a convent, a spoiled child, wilful, tactless, and virtuous—she was the antithesis in almost every respect of her cavalier husband, and an object of ridicule at his gay and immoral court. It is but natural that her biographer should be so touched by her misfortunes as to make the story of her life a defence and apology. Miss Davidson has written a most elaborate biography, filled with much antiquarian research, but one feels that she is somewhat too much intent upon the glorification of a very ordinary character, finding for her beauty—of a kind—gentleness, and lovableness which escaped most of the unfeeling contemporaries who have left us descriptions of her. Were it not for the attempt to make romance out of the most prosaic character at the court of the Restoration, we should feel that the book is a solid piece of work. But along with the tone of over-wrought sentiment there are devices, such as invented conversations, imaginative descriptions of palaces and festivals, and a somewhat amateurish way of referring to certain secondary authorities that tend to lessen one's confidence in the author's judgment. This impression, however, grows less as one proceeds. Along with the wealth of antiquarian detail, there is a generous use of letters and contemporary documents. The book is better than it seems, and while it is doubtful if it will regain for Queen Catherine much popularity, it will certainly win for her some sympathy. If one were only so sure as the author is of the depth of affection the queen maintained for her wayward husband, one might stretch one's orthodoxy enough to read without a smile the closing words:

> Seas and shores part them; tides flow and winds sweep; but perhaps in the world unseen the desire and prayer of Catherine's life are granted, and she and the one man life held for her are face to face once more, with none between.

As it is, we regard this as merely indicating a lack of humor upon the part of Miss Davidson. Why should she want to secure an eternity of bliss for Catherine by an eternity of boredom for Charles? Somehow, in spite of our Puritan morals, we do not wish Charles quite such hard luck; and we confess to cherishing a secret preference for Nell Gwynn and her rollicking, generous ways over the shocked and virtuous queen. Catherine's failure to win her husband is her own condemnation, for no man was ever more susceptible to feminine charm than the gay, good-natured king. But then we perhaps should remember the difficulty of being a queen in competition.

For such as take an interest in royal romances, this life of Queen Catherine will be a welcome addition to the literature upon that subject. Outside its own field, it has little value to the student of history, for Catherine played no noteworthy rôle in European politics.

Essays, Political and Biographical. By Sir Spencer Walpole. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

We have several times called attention to the unusual value of the writings of the late Sir Spencer Walpole, and we now heartily commend this posthumous volume. It contains ten papers, nearly all of which appeared originally as reviews of noteworthy books. Two deal with Halifax and Godolphin, and one with the late Lord Granville. There is a study of Crabbe the poet, whose fame, after various periods of occultation, seems at last to be fixed. Walpole makes the publication of the Croker Papers the text for an analysis of the public career of that shifty and truculent politician. Most entertaining is the story of Princess de Lieven, who exercised an astonishing fascination over British statesmen as dissimilar as Wellington and Grey, and captivated Continental celebrities as far apart as Metternich the lady-killer and Guizot the demure Puritan. Walpole's account of the Dining Societies of London—to wit, The Club, Grillion's, the Dilettanti Society, the Literary Society, and Nobody's—happily mingles chronicle and anecdote. Two important historical papers, "The History of the [British] Cabinet," and "The Causes of the American Civil War," display Walpole's firm grasp of historic evolution. For American readers the former is, naturally, the more valuable; nowhere else, so far as we are aware, can so clear and full a narrative of the development of the British Cabinet be found in so brief a space. The latter gives to Englishmen—who, as Walpole remarks, are deplorably ignorant of American history—a fair and comprehensive and remarkably lucid explanation of the origin of our irrepressible conflict. A tribute to Frank Buckland completes the list of essays.

Walpole's daughter, Mrs. Francis Holland, writes a pleasant but rather desultory chapter of reminiscences of her father: we search it in vain for the dates of his birth, death, and chief publications, but we find some bits of character-sketching which are evidently lifelike. We regret that the titles of the books which called forth Sir Spencer's reviews, and the names of the periodicals in which they first appeared (with dates) have not been given. The average reader may not immediately recall that Fitzmaurice is Granville's biographer, or that Jennings was Croker's editor, or that Torrens wrote the history of the Cabinet. But the essays themselves abound in interest. They are ripe, the fruit of a man versed in history and biography, who is also a frequenter of the highroad of literature, experienced in the affairs of government, and rich in half a century's intercourse with many of the leaders of his time and country. He has skill in getting at the mainspring of character, as when he shows how Granville failed through excessive complaisance in holding the dominant position for which his training and ability seemed to fit him; and he leaves the impression of reasonableness and an uncontroversial respect for truth.

The Imperial Gazetteer of India. The Indian Empire. Vol II. Historical. Vol. V.—XIV., Abazai-Kara. New edition, published under the authority of His Majesty's Secretary of State for India in Council. New York: Henry Frowde. $2 net each.

A careful examination of these latest volumes of the third edition of the Indian Gazetteer greatly strengthens the impression of the uniqueness and importance of the work, derived from the three volumes, entitled, respectively, "Descriptive," "Economic," and "Administrative," which were published last year (see the *Nation* August 8, 1907, p. 125). The "Historical" volume, which completes the introduction, is a mine of information, not only in regard to the history of the country from the earliest times to the resignation of Lord Curzon in 1905; but also in regard to the sources from which the facts are to be drawn. There are chapters on such important branches of historical investigation as epigraphy, numismatics, archæology, and architecture, as well as literature. These are contributed by different writers who have made a special study of the subject: that on Sanskrit literature, for example, is by the professor of Sanskrit at Oxford, Dr. A. A. Macdonell. From the chapter on epigraphy we learn that "only a small part of the mine of epigraphic information has been as yet explored," and that excavations will undoubtedly bring to light many an important record now hidden from sight.

The Gazetteer proper contains in a compact form innumerable facts and figures, based on the census of 1901, though many of the statistics are brought down as late as 1907. Since every important or specially interesting thing in regard to any place, however

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small, is recorded, the volumes are replete with lively anecdotes of people and incidents. The writers are often district officers and officials of native states. Some idea of the extent of the work may be gained from the fact that the account of the Bombay Presidency and city fills 156 pages, including four excellent maps and seventeen tables of statistics. Among the many indications of progress contained in these volumes we will note only two: the recent increase in the number of schools for girls, and the fact that the native state Hyderabad has a telephone system owned by the government having connection with 154 offices and houses.

Of course, in a work of such magnitude absolute accuracy is impossible; but the only error of significance which we have observed is the different dates assigned to the reign of Asoka, 272-231 B. C. and 264-227 B. C.; the latter is probably the one best authenticated. A special map of the empire, beautifully executed, is prefixed to each volume. The work as a whole is a worthy monument to English rule in India, and it is doubtful whether any country has ever been described on such a scale in its every department, historical, physical, social, economic, religious, and literary.

Nach Amerika in einem Auswandererschiffe: Das innere Leben der Vereinigten Staaten. Von Mgr. Graf Vay von Vaya. New York: Imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.

The author, an Hungarian, a nobleman, and a Roman Catholic prelate, has given us one of the fairest and friendliest books on the American people that has been written in German. Count Vay de Vaya first visited the United States some ten years ago, in an emigrant ship, and early came into contact with the poorer classes. Indeed, his time in New York was divided among the rich and the poor, his mornings devoted to the East Side strugglers, his afternoons and evenings to the well-to-do. All his material, therefore, is that of the first-hand investigator. He relates his experiences among the emigrants on board ship; he adds his impressions of the slums of New York and the social whirl of Fifth Avenue. He has studied the problem of immigration, American youth and American schools, Chicago as the city of industry, the present state and prospects of American agriculture, the all-absorbing passion of Americans for work, and the power, as well as the powerlessness, of money here. He discusses American books and authors, American pictures and painters, and American religious organizations. A visit to President Roosevelt is reported in full. In fine, the book deals with the most salient features of American life as found in the North and in the States east of Chicago; and so far as it goes it is suggestive and entertaining. His style is clear and agreeable.

Count Vay de Vaya is hopeful for the immigrants' and the country's future on account of the readiness of the children of even the first generation here to become pronouncedly "Americanized." The public school he regards as the great agency for bringing the representatives of different races together on an equal footing and establishing the most enduring *ententes cordiales*; and, considering his Roman Catholic training, these views are of peculiar interest. In the public schools he also finds that the philosophy of work, hard work, is early instilled. Everybody works in America.

Finally, the author, who is Apostolic Protonotar, discusses the status of the Roman Catholic Church in America, and reaches the conclusion that it is the leading church, not merely in numbers, but also in its influence on public life, the extent and wealth of its edifices, and the relations of its dignitaries to prominent men outside of the church (the cardinal and other Catholics are often seen in company with the President). But even in discussing the contradictions of "the sects," and the relatively smaller fields of the Episcopalians and Presbyterians, the Hungarian nobleman preserves his amenity.

Individualism and After. By Benjamin Kidd. New York: Henry Frowde.

Mr. Kidd's latest public utterance (the Herbert Spencer Lecture, delivered at Oxford, May 29) will appear to most readers a belated expression of views that, in their main features, have often been ably expounded on both sides of the Atlantic. The central thesis of the lecture is that, in the thought and life of the Western world, an organic view of society has been rapidly displacing the individualism which was dominant until well after the middle of the nineteenth century. Accompanying this development there has been, as he shows, a rapid and continuous extension of the functions of government, and an abandonment of the doctrine of unqualified competition. Herbert Spencer is taken as the chief representative of individualism. His statement that the corporate life of the state "must be subservient to the lives of the parts, instead of the lives of the parts being subservient to the corporate life," epitomizes, we are told, the spirit and meaning of the doctrine.

Even while accepting Mr. Kidd's leading contentions, one feels the need of a more exact definition and a closer criticism of the terms and conceptions which he so freely uses. Especially does one miss any recognition of the permanent truth in individualism which no organic view of human life can render obsolete. For the consciousness of the individual is, in the last resort, the only centre of good and evil, the sole home of values. This truth can be maintained, while full justice is done to an organic theory of society. It is this fact which the French philosopher, Alfred Fouillée, has in mind when he speaks of society as "hyperorganic," in the sense that each member of the whole is itself an organism, whose welfare must be realized in and through the corporate life. The convenient figure of the organism, if uncritically accepted, may conceal as well as reveal the truth.

A corollary of a just theory of individualism is that any supposed efficiency or glory which Imperialism, for example, may win for the state, must always be appraised by its effects on the well-being of the many individuals comprising it. And the only sense in which we can say that the interests of the individual units must be subordinated to the corporate life of society, is that in social and political relations the interests of the few must be subordinated to the interests of the many. But such individualism does not mean a return to the atomistic view of society. The individual is, of course, through and through a social being, able to realize his richest life only in infinitely complex relations with his fellows.

The Law of the Federal and State Constitutions of the United States: With an Historical Study of Their Principles, a Chronological Table of English Social Legislation, and a Comparative Digest of the Constitutions of the Forty-six States. By Frederick Jesup Stimson. Boston: The Boston Book Co. $3.50 net.

This treatise consists of three distinct parts. The longest and most important is the third, a comparative digest of State Constitutions, annotated and compared with the Constitution of the United States (pp. 121-357). The scheme of classification is fivefold, covering individual rights, political provisions, legislation, the judicial system, and Constitutional amendments. The difficulty of constructing such a comparison of Constitutions is being greatly enhanced by the astounding length and minute details of some of the instruments recently adopted. Oklahoma's, for instance, runs to one hundred and seventy-five pages; and, as the author remarks pathetically, "without an index." This grouping of Constitutional law around common topics is not intended for the practitioner, but primarily for the student of politics. It is a comparative study never before worked out so completely. Our debt to the compiler is accordingly large.

The second part of the treatise (pp. 73-118) is little more than a chronological table of excerpts from Constitutional documents from Magna Charta down

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through our own Federal Constitution, showing the basis of personal liberty. There follows a bare chronological table of English social legislation from the Conquest to the passage of the Hepburn Act—rather crudely done, as may be instanced by the entry under 1350. Herbert Spencer is quoted as authority for the abolition in this year of the privileges of the trade guilds. The author comments: "This statute, however, cannot be found in the Statutes at Large." Spencer is also cited as the authority for the statement that in 1348 the Court of Chancery became the Court of Equity. Coke we know, and Blackstone we know, but who in historical jurisprudence is Herbert Spencer?

The prefatory essay (pp.3-72), entitled "Origin and Growth of the American Constitutions," will chiefly challenge the attention of the reader broadly interested in political history. The treatment has its strong points and its defects. It is strong in perspective. The author realizes clearly the burning tract of present-day Constitutional strife in the mass of pending litigation involving the "obligation of contract" and "commerce among the States." He is keenly alive to the agencies at work to force Constitutional change—the impulse of class interest to escape from the leash of equality before the law, and the quickening tendency to sacrifice precedent for efficiency or "results" in administration. On the other hand, the very method of exposition by which the writer depicts Constitutional growth is bound to issue in a certain tenuous impression of unreality. His plan is to take a particular Constitutional principle, like the right to law (that is, the right of hearing and trial by due process of law), or the right of liberty, and then to trace the growth of this principle from start to finish. An alternative method of depicting simultaneously the people's Constitutional habit at different times is perhaps a more complicated task, logically viewed, but it carries a more intimate sense of reality than the plan adopted by Professor Stimson. A novelist who traced his heroine's several traits, each in isolation from the others, might afford us a conspectus of the virtues, but would never give us a flesh and blood creation. *Mutatis mutandis*, this method of describing Constitutional growth, gives the dialectic of categories rather than the historic sense of reality.

There are other occasional defects even in the seriatim analysis of the growth of particular Constitutional usages. To say that, apart from slavery in 1066 and villainage, which "disappeared, largely as a consequence of the rebellions of Jack Cade and Wat Tyler," "the right to liberty was general in England from the earliest times" gives a most misleading impression. The gradual emancipation of the serf, the century-long decadence of villainage, the persisting moral tyranny of the squirearchy and the legal tyranny of the craft guilds, are all momentous limitations of the right to liberty as defined by our author (p. 18) which quite negatives his generalization. Moreover, the chapter on "Government Organization" is not very discriminating in the matter of the separation of the powers of government. On page 52 we are told that "the judicial branch alone has no part in the other two," and on the very next page occurs the statement that "it is difficult to see why the alteration of the common law [by judicial decision] is not legislation"—a comment unquestionably sane, but destructive of the proposition about the complete separation of the judicial branch from executive or legislative functions. The general finding upon the essay must be that it exhibits the insight of the analytic juristic mind, but not the catholic comprehension of the social historian. Haste is unfortunately too often in evidence in the printed page—witness the footnote to p. 52, the use of public for republic on p. 60, and the curious use of the word "legislation" instead of "governmental powers" for the diagram showing the respective rights and disabilities of the Federal and the State governments.

An Apostle of the North. Memoirs of the Rt. Rev. William Carpenter Bompas. By H. A. Cody. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.

William Carpenter Bompas was in turn Bishop of Athabasca, Mackenzie River, and Selkirk, in the Yukon region, being in each case the first administrator of the diocese. He was a suffragan of the Archbishop of Rupertsland, who writes an introduction to the memoirs. The tone of the book cannot be called quite broad and tolerant. In the detailed account of the evangelization of the high North, there is no mention of work performed by other Protestant bodies; nor as regards the Roman Catholics, always so early and so effectively in the field when barbarism is to be redeemed, do we find in this book any cordial recognition of great service. As regards the missionary station Metlakahtla, on the Pacific Coast, it has been charged that the hierarchy of which Bishop Bompas was a member quite frustrated the good work of a worthy missionary by the imposition of an unessential and impracticable formalism—an unfortunate episode in the Christianization of the North to which this book only briefly refers without describing or defending.

But we hasten to drop the spirit of fault-finding. The critic who reads these memoirs finds himself disarmed in the presence of a character meek with the temper of the Master, heroically devoted, of courage which no hardships or misfortunes could break. Bompas was a well-born Londoner, son of an advocate of note, who had the distinction, grotesque in connection with this story, of being the original of the Sergeant Buzfuz of the "Pickwick Papers." The son was himself articled as a solicitor, studying law for five years, but becoming the subject of religious conviction, took orders, and in 1864, at thirty, resolved upon the life of a missionary. His name was said to be derived from an ancestor knighted at Crécy for valor. "C'est un bon pas," said an approving bystander. His descendant was to exhibit a higher chivalry than that of the battlefield. His life henceforth, until 1906, passed almost without break amid Arctic hardships; he was surrounded by the squalor of savages of a low type, in contact with the brutalities of remote trading and mining camps. He was a man of refined and scholarly tastes, as his verses show; he read the Scriptures in Greek, Hebrew, and Syriac. To him the Scripture was the source of all light and leading, and he pursued the letter of it into its most remote linguistic guise. Circumscribed as he was in his ideas, no salvation seemed possible to him except through profession of one special creed—no proper well-being for a soul except within the fold in which he himself was a shepherd. The narrowness made him the more intense, and he sacrificed himself utterly for what he felt to be duty. He grew to love the frigid and rock-bound wilderness and the scanty groups into which he gathered his dusky converts: what to the world seemed long and painful martyrdom became to him a career of joy. If he ever left his field to return to civilization, he went back again at the earliest opportunity with something like rapture. Here death found the old bishop in 1906. He sleeps in a graveyard in the remote Yukon country, after a life as consecrated and heroic, perhaps, as has anywhere been lived in our time, or indeed in any time.

Science.

Diseases of Occupation from the Legislative, Social, and Medical Points of View. By Thomas Oliver. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.00 net.

This book treats of the diseases incidental to a great variety of occupations in factories, workshops, mines, potteries, and other employments where many persons labor together. Less fully considered, but by no means neglected, are the occupations which may be called solitary in the sense that the individual takes the risk alone, or nearly so. There are general statements concerning diseases of domestic servants, but nothing is said of the dangers to which sewing-women are exposed when alone or in

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small groups—the family sweatshop—or of the perils of the kitchen, which are by no means so slight as is commonly believed. Dr. Oliver has had much experience with many of these questions, both in his practice in Newcastle, England, and as a member of several committees to which the English government has referred various problems in industrial legislation for examination and report. He has also first-hand knowledge of the conditions prevailing in many industries of the Continent. Wherever he is not qualified to speak from personal experience, he has drawn from good sources, with as full a mention of the literature as the purpose of the book requires.

Any classification of occupations according to their dangers is necessarily difficult, and the reader must look in many different places for the particular effects of toxic substances or industrial conditions. A full index, however, which bears examination well, makes such comparison easy. In most cases the descriptions are rather brief, but here and there Dr. Oliver gives fuller details or adds an account of the history of an occupation and its dangers. Such, for example, is the story of the growth of match-making, with its incidental poisoning by phosphorus (pp. 35-53), as well as that of the curious anæmia of miners and others which long puzzled physicians, and finally found a simple explanation in the presence of a peculiar worm, ankylostoma. Interesting, too, is the description of the disturbances due to work in compressed air (caisson disease, "bends"), and also the extraordinarily varied rôle played by plumbism. The question of the immunity of coal miners to tuberculosis, recently discussed in the newspapers, is touched upon, and Dr. Oliver comes to the conclusion that the diminution of this particular death-rate should be ascribed to improved conditions in the mines rather than to any form of immunity peculiar to the occupation. The last chapter treats of rescue work in mines, particularly as illustrated in some recent disasters, a work whose good results would seem to be capable of much wider application. The book is modern enough to take in the motor car and the balloon, as well as the typewriter; nor are the Roentgen rays and their dangers, including sterility, neglected.

Even the casual reader will hardly fail to be impressed by the fact that, apart from accidents and a few specific organisms, much of the harm which comes to the industrial workman comes from dust or dampness. He will not read far without noting that man is so often the cheapest of all machines merely because the community rather than the employer pays for repairs or replacement. The Socialist will find many a good argument to support the thesis that the community has a great deal to gain by insistence upon inspection and sanitary regulation of employment, since it will decrease the public burden caused by ill health and consequent poverty, the cost of which is now hidden in the poor rates and other taxes.

In the "Cyclopedia of American Agriculture," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey (The Macmillan Co.), Volume III., "Animals," has now appeared. In reviewing the earlier volumes (see the *Nation* of October 24, 1907, p. 380), we have already discussed the scope and general character of the work. Weather, soils, and plant life have been pretty thoroughly studied, but in the animal kingdom there is still much chaos and confusion. Little is certainly known about the laws of heredity, and most animal breeders pay slight attention to that little. We turn to the chapter on the principles of animal-breeding with some curiosity to see what F. B. Mumford will do with his embarrassing subject, and we find him slipping smoothly around and between Darwin, Lamarck, Weismann, Spencer, De Vries, Davenport, and Morgan, apparently unconscious of being between the firing lines. With malice toward none and with charity for all, he records conflicting theories and irreconciled facts, though gently setting aside, as of no practical importance, some of the pet superstitions of stock breeders, such as telegony, prenatal influences, and the determination of the sex. Mendel's law he does not even mention, but 500 pages further on C. B. Davenport compensates us by making the law a fundamental principle in the breeding of poultry. In the discussion of the stock-feeding and the diseases of the animals also many questions occur to which no satisfactory answers can now be given. But this Cyclopedia is as complete and authoritative as any work can be in the present state of science. The articles are signed and the present volume gives a list of 104 contributors and of 158 who have otherwise collaborated in the preparation. The casual reader who never intends to retire to a farm, will enjoy turning over the leaves because of the unexpected bits of curious information that he will strike. On the first page he will learn that only about one out of a thousand known living species of mammals and birds has been domesticated, and most of this domestication took place in primitive, if not prehistoric ages. The editor has made diligent effort to record every species of animal really domesticated for agricultural uses in North America (north of Mexico), and yet the book contains accounts of only twenty species of mammals, not more than a dozen birds, one of fish (carp), and two of insects (silk-worm and bees). The casual reader, with his usual habit of skipping the most important things, will also be interested in turtle farming, in raising sponges, in seal hunting, and in the fate of the seventy-five camels which disappeared in the Arizona desert.

The Third Supplement to the "Index Kewensis" (Henry Frowde), prepared by the curators of the Herbarium at Kew, under the supervision of the director of the Royal Garden there, brings the list of additions to phanerogamic botany down to the close of 1905. The labor involved in the collation of the names of new species of flowering plants, described throughout the world, is enormous. Every botanical publication must be searched for its contribution of new species, and, where possible, synonyms must be noted. The Second Supplement (issued in 1905) was published under the directorship of W. T. Thiselton-Dyer; the present director is D. Prain.

The late Dr. Charles Schäffer of Philadelphia was among the earliest botanists to explore the treasures of the Canadian Rockies. His widow has for some years continued his work; with camera and outfit for water-color painting on the spot, she has penetrated many of the almost inaccessible fastnesses of the Rockies, and by dint of an enthusiasm which no difficulties have lessened, has secured admirable photographs and paintings of the rarer species of flowering plants. Many of these exquisite illustrations are given in "Alpine Flora of the Canadian Rocky Mountains," by Stewardson Brown (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The volume constitutes one of the most useful Alpine guides we have seen. In the different regions of Switzerland, one finds local handbooks with fairly good representations of the most interesting species, but not one of these volumes possesses better illustrations for the use of the amateur botanist than this on our own Alps. Mr. Brown's descriptions appear to be clear and helpful, but it is to be regretted that he has made use of a provincial nomenclature, which is not in accord with the conclusions reached at the International Congress of Botanists. This guide is made handy in size by cutting down the margins, but by this process the artistic effect of Mrs. Schäffer's work has been considerably impaired.

The "Essentials of Dietetics in Health and Disease," by Amy E. Pope and Mary L. Carpenter (G. P. Putnam's Sons), a small volume of 250 pages, is intended for nurses and the household. Rather more than a third of the book is devoted to processes of cooking and recipes. Some of these are hardly explicit enough for the inexperienced, although many of them are likely to be useful. The rest of the book contains an account of foods, much of which is exceedingly good, despite a confusingly inconsistent use of calculations and chemical terms. The table of the approximate composition of common food materials (pp. 102-104) seems to contain serious errors and the calories given there do not agree with the results obtained by using the fuel values noted (p. 99) as the basis of comparison. The metric system is inadequately explained, and is applied in a very misleading manner, and the chemical part of the book leaves much to be desired.

"Nursing the Insane," by Dr. Clara Barrus of the New York State Hospital at Middletown (The Macmillan Co.), is based on talks to nurses which the author has given in the course of an extended asylum experience. The book contains much good advice, but the treatment of the general subjects which all kinds of nurses need to know is uneven and often incomplete. As the preface intimates, the author in her original talks had primarily the care of women in mind, a limitation which the extended work has not altogether overcome. The description of the various forms of in-

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sanity has many admirable features, but on some points falls short of what a nurse should learn. The last chapter briefly notes the legal requirements to be fulfilled in the admission of insane patients to the hospitals of this State, and gives good advice concerning the removal of such persons from their homes. In general, it may be said that the book contains too little for a nurse obliged to work without constant direction, especially in private houses, and often almost too much for those that have such supervision.

Hermann Settegast, professor of agriculture in the University of Berlin, has died in his ninetieth year. Among his works are "Individualpotenz und Mentzel-Weckherlinsche Schule der Rassen- und Konstanzdoktrin," "Die Tierzucht," "Erlebtes und Erstrebtes," "Die deutsche Freimauerei," "Der Idealismus und die deutsche Landwirtschaft," "Die Viehzucht Frankreichs."

Drama and Music.

MUSIC HALLS AND THEATRES.

A great change has occurred in the relationship of the music halls to the theatres during the prolonged career of Antonio Pastor, the dean of the local variety stage, who died last week. The hall has become the rival of the theatre to a degree which would have seemed impossible half a century ago, when the former frankly appealed to the less intelligent part of the community. In those earlier days the chief attractions of the halls were clog-dancing, stump oratory — generally in black face—and the topical comic song; with intervals, perhaps, of ground and lofty tumbling. Most of these entertainments owed their main interest to the excuses which they supplied for the consumption of liquor and tobacco and indulgence in still coarser enjoyments. It is difficult to realize now that fame, of a sort, and solid wealth, were acquired on both sides of the Atlantic, by means of songs whose blatant vulgarity was only exceeded by their crass stupidity. Silly as are most of our contemporaneous popular ditties, they are not all completely void of point or melody. At all events, the "mammoth comiques" of the "Champagne Charlie" era would not have much chance of duplicating their fortunes to-day. Occasionally there would arise some vocal and instrumental comedian, of genuine ability, like Mackney, an agile eccentric like Stead, or a genius such as Robson, who could convert "Villikins and his Dinah" into a tragedy of pathos and passion, but such exceptions were rare and only served to emphasize the imbecility of the great body of music-hall entertainers.

It is not often that the contemporaneous music hall addresses itself successfully to the purely intellectual spectator, but beyond all question it exhibits a vast improvement in many respects over its predecessors, while, now and then, it offers achievements, in different directions, of positive artistic value. Of course, it is still, owing to the wholly commercial character of its managers, very often coarse, stupid, or grossly sensational—as in the matter of sensual dancing, for instance—but, nevertheless, it is making a certain amount of progress, and can no longer be numbered among the recreations at which it is discreditable to be caught. Without doubt, it constitutes an opposition to the regular theatre which is already formidable, and is likely to be more serious in the near future. Possibly the amount of capital invested in it may, before long, exceed that employed by the various syndicates in the exploitation of what they are pleased to call dramatic art.

But it must not be supposed that the music hall is making these inroads upon the constituency of the theatre simply by virtue of its own merits. The greater part of its growth and influence is due to the decadency of dramatic art and the grasping, short-sighted, and incompetent policy of the speculators who are slowly but surely reducing the regular stage to the music-hall level. It is not only that the music halls are growing better, but that the theatres are growing worse. Since the halls have gained the right of giving what is known as the "tabloid" drama, they have been competing with the theatres, and not altogether unsuccessfully, upon their own ground. As a matter of fact, some of the performers who have appeared of late years upon the variety stage must be rated among the most accomplished members of their profession, although, for one reason or another—often quite independent of their artistic capacity—it does not suit the associated managers to permit them to appear in the regular playhouses. Dramatic reputation, nowadays, does not depend so much upon histrionic ability as upon the machinations of the press agent. But genuine ability is recognized, nevertheless, in the music halls, and the fact that it can find a refuge there is a portent of which managers, were they wise, would take heed.

The important point is, that the man in the street who desires nothing better than to be amused, is practically certain of finding something good of its kind, and something pleasing to his own personal taste in the music hall, whereas he is as likely as not to find the theatre, except in special instances, utterly stale, flat, and unprofitable. It should be remembered that the music hall, in its dramatic enterprises, follows a certain principle of selection, only reproducing the dramatic morsel of which the popularity has been demonstrated by actual trial. The fact that it seldom tries an original experiment is at once its strength and its weakness. But it would scarcely be fair to assail it for its failure to undertake pioneer work, as it makes no pretence of being inspired by artistic ambition, or of being especially interested, except in a commercial way, in the progress of art of any kind. Actually it follows a policy identical with that of the theatrical managers, but more honest and respectable, because it is free from hypocrisy.

But our main contention is that the variety stage, a development of the old music hall, which has practically ceased to exist, has become, since the disappearance of the old stock companies, a most formidable rival of the regular theatre, not only commercially, but to an appreciable extent artistically. That the leading theatrical managers are fully aware of this change, is proved by the fact that some of them already have entered the variety business, with the apparent hope of dominating the variety as well as the regular dramatic stage and running one as supplementary to the other. It is long since they first began to adapt music-hall methods to dramatic purposes, and there is no reason for supposing that they discern much difference between the objects of the two institutions. If, in this respect, they were more enlightened, the prospect for the drama would be brighter, for they might perceive that, as a mere business venture, it would be a good thing to set apart a few houses, say, half a dozen in New York, for the entertainment of the real theatre-lovers, whom they now keep in a state of intellectual starvation, and to devote the rest openly to the least expensive and most frivolous shows. But there seems little likelihood of their abandoning their present system of catering to the mob. In the immediate future, while the music hall may be expected to assume a more and more prominent position, the theatrical outlook is not absolutely desperate. What the New Theatre may do toward the work of regeneration cannot be estimated now. We can only invoke for it wisdom and prosperity. But there is definite promise in the two or three stock companies formed or in process of formation; and the day, after all, may not be far distant when there will once again be a wide distinction as well as a difference between the music hall and the theatre.

Clyde Fitch has published (John Lane Co.) what is, presumably, a final edition of his "Beau Brummel," written many years ago for the use of the late Richard Mansfield, and played by that popular actor very successfully throughout his stellar career. For a juvenile work, it is a decidedly clever effort, clumsy and rickety as it is in construction and utterly unlifelike in many of its details. Of real literary quality it has very little, and of dramatic quality still less, except in the closing scene, which exhibits a certain sense of pathos and some power of imagination. But it

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is, at least, an earnest, if not very felicitous attempt, to imitate the artificial comedy of three or four generations ago, and to illustrate the social manners and customs of England, in the days of the Prince Regent and the dandies. In its general conception, the scheme of the piece suggests the dawn of an ambitious purpose, which Mr. Fitch seems to have abandoned since he adopted the profession of dramatic tailoring, in which his adroitness as a cutter of theatrical suits has been much more conspicuous than his intellectual or moral sincerity. Although his mimicry of the formal phraseology of the older British comedy is imperfect—and sadly lacking in the wit and sharpness of human observation which atoned so amply for its elaboration—and although his character-drawing is exaggerated, often grossly inconsistent, and not infrequently wholly conventional, he nevertheless does convey a more or less distinct reflection of the times with which he is dealing, and encourages the hope of future serious and legitimate dramatic achievement which thus far has remained unfulfilled. The volume is printed as a memorial of Mr. Mansfield, who suggested the idea of the play, and who by his performance indisputably contributed greatly to its popularity. It is doubtful, indeed, whether it would ever have attracted much public attention if the central character had been entrusted to an actor of less influential personality.

A valuable contribution to the history of English literature and culture in the Elizabethan age, especially as reflected in dramatic productions and theatrical representions, is Dr. Levin Ludwig Schücking's "Shakespeare im literarischen Urteil seiner Zeit," just published (Heidelberg: Winter). The author is *privatdozent* in the University of Göttingen, and his work, based on thorough research, is written in a clear and attractive style. Particularly interesting is the chapter entitled "Shakespeare's Public," to which Hamlet's characterization of the players and spectators might well serve as a motto:

> O, it offends me to the soul to see a robustious periwig-pated fellow tear a passion to tatters, to very rags, to split the ears of the groundlings, who, for the most part, are capable of nothing but inexplicable dumb-shows and noise.

Emmanuel Arène, the French journalist and playwright, has died at the age of fifty-two. He was born in Ajaccio, and began his literary career as secretary to Edmond About. For many years he has been best known as the dramatic critic of *Figaro*. His plays are "L'Aversaire" (1905), in which he collaborated with Alfred Capus; "Paris—New York" (1907), with Francis de Croisset; and "Le Roi," with Robert de Flers and A. de Caillavet. M. Arène was also author of a book, "Le Dernier bandit."

"Musikalische Strafpredigten: Veröffentlichte Privatbriefe eines alten Groblans" is the characteristic title of a collection of critiques of modern music, which Max Steinitzer has just published in a second and much enlarged edition. Its two parts are entitled "Kleine Predigten an kleine Leute" and "Grosse Predigten an grosse Leute" (Munich: Verlag der Süddeutschen Monatshefte.

Hundreds of librettos in various languages were submitted to the Italian publisher who last year arranged an international competition for a prize of $5,000. The successful libretto, entitled, "La Festa del Grano" (The Corn Feast), by the Roman poet Salvatori, was offered to Mascagni, who declined it. It is now to be set to music by Giocondo Fino of Turin, who is a priest, as well as a composer. His oratorio, "Battista," has been produced in several Italian theatres as well as in South America. Hitherto Fino has not undertaken to compose an opera, because in all the librettos offered to him love had a prominent part. The "Festa del Grano" is not open to that objection.

The Berlin Royal Opera opened the season for 1908-9 on August 20, with Wagner's "Tristan und Isolde." Among the more important performances will be Mozart's "Figaro," with a cast including Destinn, Hempel, Berger, and Knüpfer; Puccini's "Manon," with Geraldine Farrar as Mimi; and "Aïda," "I Pagliacci," and "Marta," with Caruso. Three new operas are to be heard: Leo Blech's "Versiegelt," Laparra's "Habanera," and Goldmark's "The Winter's Tale." Among the revivals will be Gluck's "Iphigénie in Aulis" and "Mélme's "Joseph in Egypt," with recitatives by Zenger. Strong efforts are being made to provide Berlin with a new Royal Opera House. The site is already provided. The cost of building is estimated at 15,000,000 marks. It is hoped that the Prussian Parliament will grant 8,000,000 marks, and that the municipality of Berlin will provide the remainder.

Five years ago Carl H. Laeisz bequeathed $200,000 for a concert hall in Hamburg, and his widow added $50,000. The magnificent building, with seats for 1,900 persons, was opened a few weeks ago.

Art.

Heraldry as Art: An Account of its Development and Practice, chiefly in England. By G. W. Eve. Pp. x+308. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $5 net.

The utility of such a popular treatise as this must lie in its illustrations, unless indeed it is wrought into a rather dull book of reference, a mere glossary of technical terms. Such glossaries we have in the small single-volume works of Clark, Cussan, Planché, Worthy, Boutell, and others, and the valuable larger volume by the author last named, "Heraldry, Historical and Popular," of which the third edition was published in 1864; also in the two-volume "Treatise on Heraldry, British and Foreign," by John Woodward and George Burnett. Larger works, such as William Berry's "Encyclopædia Heraldica," and the recent folio of Arthur Charles Fox-Davies, "The Art of Heraldry: an Encyclopœdia of Armory" (1904), give us glossaries, together with much more material. But not one of them all compares with this new volume in display of so much of armorial achievement as can be shown in black and white.

The volume is printed entirely on coated paper, and contains at least sixty half-tone pictures, with 230 illustrations in line, from diagrams to elaborate reproductions of old prints. Naturally, those escutcheons are selected which are found sculptured or modelled in solid form, and the value of the book as a treatise is diminished by this avoidance of the true language of heraldic art, the *tinctures*—gules and azure, sable and or, ermine and vair. The hatchings and pointings which stand for these, by convention, are poor things when given in relief sculpture. And yet a seemly display is made in a number of cases, as by the bearings on the shield of the Black Prince in Canterbury Cathedral (Fig. 1) and by the diapered shield from Beverley Minster (Fig. 140). The enamelled escutcheons, too, can be photographed with some success, as in the shield of William de Valence (Fig. 174).

A more accurate title for the book would be "The Artistic Treatment of Blazonry," or "of Armorial Bearings." "Heraldry" is too general a term for the single subject of the marshalling of arms; and it is a poor and slight form of "art" that the herald knows. The use of a shield in a colored window, or carved upon a tomb, is indeed not forbidden to the decorative designer; and yet, the flat, ungraded patches of color, strong red, blue, black, white, and gold, afford but a poor set of units of which to make a design; and the smaller and the less showy your escutcheon, the better for your memorial window. The lead cisterns, steel lock-plates, and engraved blades of halberd and bill, all given in Mr. Eve's book, come nearer to an adequate system of ornamentation than any painted or inlaid color compositions. It is not until we reach embroidery, in the fifteenth century, that blazonry in full color becomes a really interesting and beautiful art.

Otto H. Bacher, the American artist and etcher, who knew Whistler in Venice, will publish this month, through the Century Company, a volume of recollections of those days, with reproductions of twenty-two Whistler etchings, three Whistler lithographs, and five Whistler letters, and a number of etchings and photographs by Mr. Bacher himself.

Two important Cretan discoveries, made by the Italian expedition, are reported by Luigi Pernier, in the *Marzocco*, Florence. The first is a terra-cotta disc more than six inches in diameter bearing on both sides a pictographic inscription. The small figures representing men, fishes, birds, trees, plants, and various utensils, are contained within incised spirals running from the rim to the centre. These figures are brought together into groups by scratched lines and are undoubtedly characters of a very ancient pictographic writing of which a few specimens of a simpler sort have been noted on gems found at Knossos. But on each side of this plaque, which was found at Phæstus, are no less than 120 signs. And

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since we have not to do with letters but hieroglyphs, this indicates a document of considerable extent from which one may even hope to decipher the earliest Cretan inscriptions. The characters are not worked with a point, as has always been the case in previous scanty finds, but struck with punches which must have been beautifully and accurately cut. "A true example of typography," says Signor Pernier, "which goes back to 2,000 years before Christ." At Prinià the expedition discovered an archaic Greek temple containing many fragments of colored sculpture in soft limestone. The most important of these is a goddess half life size, seated with arms close to the body and hands resting on the knees. The heavy chiton is ornamented with rosettes and small figures of animals carved in low relief, representing embroidery. Under a sort of mitre the hair falls heavily and symmetrically upon the shoulders. Upon the sculptured base of this statue is carved the same divinity in the same costume, but standing with the arms pressed closely to the sides. At the right and left are three lions and three feeding stags in a highly developed naturalistic style. Signor Pernier surmises that in this sixth century fragment we may have a precious relic of the so-called Dædalan art of Crete, which the ancients believed to be the beginning of their sculpture.

An Italian expedition has been excavating on the site of the city of Adulis, near Zula, in Eretrea. The results are published by Dr. R. Paribeni, in the transactions of the Accademia dei Lincei. Extensive remains of a well-built town, antedating in part the Alexandrian era, were found. Temples, streets, and houses, with architectural decorations in marble, alabaster, and bronze, attest a considerable degree of culture. The later kings coined money, gold abundantly, using the Roman denominations, as they did the Roman weights.

The annual report of the Swiss National Museum at Zurich contains an account of the excavations which D. Viollier has directed at Augst, eight miles from Bâle. Not less than fifteen hundred tombs have been opened on a small plateau a few hundred yards above the ruins of the Roman Castrum, the Colonia Augusta Rauracorum which L. Munatius Plancus built, B. C. 27. They belong to the fifth century, when the Alemanni were well established on both banks of the Rhine. There was little stonework, but a few tombs were made of bricks taken from the Roman walls. Some skeletons held Roman coins in their hands, but in many cases no objects were discovered. There were a great many bead necklaces, including some very fine specimens, and many iron buckles, some ornamented with silver or bronze. Five extremely rare small Merovingian gold coins, coarse imitations of pieces issued by the Emperor Justinian, were, because of their rarity, the most valuable objects.

Duncan MacKellar, a Scottish figure painter, whose series of scenes in the life of Burns has attracted some attention, died at Lochgoilhead, August 13, in his sixtieth year.

Dr. Georg Schäfer, a writer on art, has died at Darmstadt in his eighty-sixth year. He discovered in 1863 the lost Passion pictures which Hans Holbein the elder painted for the Dominican Church at Frankfurt-a.-M.; and in 1873 he discovered the Einhard basilica in Odenwald. Among his writings are: "Histoire de Hohenzollern au moyen âge" (1859), "Denkmäler der Elfenbeinplastik des grossherzoglichen Museums zu Darmstadt" (1872), "Kunstdenkmäler im Grossherzogtum Hesse," "Die Kirche zu Offenbach" (1885), "Die Kirche zu Erbach" (1891), "Der Dom zu Fünfkirchen" (1891), "Kunsthistorisches Bildercalendar für das Grossherzogtum Hesse" (1896), and "Die Kirche zu Wimpfen" (1898).

Finance.

THE GUARANTEE OF BANK DEPOSITS.

The proposal to guarantee bank deposits, through the compulsory contribution by all banks to a common fund, is strongly urged by Mr. Bryan and opposed by Mr. Taft. This is a convenient and available campaign issue, first because it is apparently a measure of protection for the thrifty; second, because it is in line with the general movement for the regulation of capitalistic institutions. When the project is first stated to the average citizen, he is likely to adopt it unhesitatingly. It would certainly be to his advantage to be insured against loss through failure of his bank; and when he is informed, as he usually is, that such a guarantee would put an end to "bank runs," to hoarding of money, and to panics like that of last October, the argument is convincing.

As with other plausible theories, however, the plan of compulsory guarantee of deposits, when seriously considered, is found to have grave defects. The first and most familiar objection is that the conservatively managed institution will be compelled to contribute toward the guarantee of the bank which is incompetently or recklessly conducted. From this follows the inference that the incompetent or inexperienced manager, not to mention the banker who accepts risky loans and deals with doubtful undertakings, can appeal for the deposits of the public far more strongly with this guarantee than without it. The depositor who would not entrust his money to a bank with a shady reputation will now be assured that under any circumstances his deposits are safeguarded by the joint guarantee of the institutions that are strongest and soundest. If this argument impresses the depositor, as it is likely to do, the bank may follow it up by offering rates of interest which cannot be paid by rivals engaged in cautious and conservative banking. Every one knows how effective this expedient was in attracting deposits, during the few years prior to the panic, into certain banks and trust companies of New York city which were devoted to something else than legitimate banking; and how deposits thus obtained stimulated the unwholesome inflation and speculation in Wall Street.

When, furthermore, one is asked whether the prevention of panic "runs" might not be a sufficient advantage to offset these other objections, the fact comes to light that no plan of guarantee has ever contemplated a fund immediately available. If the fund is to be invested, the depositor in a broken bank must await its conversion into cash—which, at a time of numerous suspensions, would be at best a slow process; and under present conditions the assets of the failed institution will primarily be applied to the payment of depositors. All this means delay, and bank runs are started as much through the wish of depositors to get their money instantly as through a fear that they will not get it at all. Of this fact the runs on savings banks are the surest proof; their occurrence, in the face of the protection thrown by the law around depositors, hardly foreshadows the abolition of bank runs through assurances of ultimate reimbursement of depositors.

On these several points, Mr. Taft touched briefly in his statement of last week, declaring that "the fundamental objection to the proposed plan . . . is that it puts a premium on reckless banking and is an inducement to reckless banking," and that with such banks "relieved of the responsibility to and the fear of the depositors, the tendency would be to induce exploitation, manipulation, and the use of assets of banks in a speculative way." None of these points is fairly met by Mr. Bryan. His argument, in his Topeka speech, is that "a bank asks deposits on the theory that the depositor is sure of the return of his money, and the laws ought to make the facts conform to the theory." The inference is rather sweeping. Every loan of money—indeed, every investment of money—is solicited on precisely the same theory. The objection that obscure, inexperienced, or recklessly managed institutions would be enabled to outbid conservative banks in the competition for deposits, is described by Mr. Bryan as the argument "presented by the big banks which put their own selfish interests above the welfare of the depositors and the safety of the community." This is simply to misrepresent the idea. Reminded of the objection that the guarantee might easily stimulate increased activities by speculative bankers, Mr. Bryan replies that the guarantee "would, if it made any difference in this respect, bring into the banking business a better class of men and raise, if that is possible, the average of character." But this statement is sheer unsupported assertion, for he neglects to inform us how or why this useful result would be achieved.

Finally, Mr. Bryan fails, as do most of the advocates of the theory, to take

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account of the fact that a guarantee of depositors is also in substance a guarantee of all bank loans. By far the greater part of the bank deposit fund of the United States is made up of credit granted by the institutions to borrowers, and placed on the books as a deposit when the credit has been granted. For the banks as a whole to insure depositors of this class from loss, under any and all circumstances, is equivalent to their guaranteeing to make up the shortage in the proceeds of the loan, if the bank is forced to liquidate. This, in our judgment, is a pretty extensive duty to impose on the banks against their will in any country, and particularly in our own.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, P. S. Selections from Erasmus. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 3s. 6d.
Andreiyeff, Leonidas. Silence. Philadelphia: Brown Bros. 25 cents.
American Philological Association, Transactions and Proceedings for 1907. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Armour, Francis J. The Brotherhood of Wisdom. John Lane Co.
Bindloss, Harold. By Right of Purchase. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Bristol, Frank Milton. The Life of Chaplain McCabe. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50 net.
Buchanan, James. Works. Edited by John Bassett Moore. Vol. IV. 1838-1841. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Crowell, Katherine R. The Call of the Waters. Fleming H. Revell Co. 50 cents net.
Dole, Charles F. What We Know About Jesus. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Farinelli, Arturo. Dante e la Francia. 2 vols. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli. 30 lire.
Forrest, J. R. The Student Cavaliers. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1 net.
Galsworthy, John. A Commentary. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Gildersleeve, Virginia Crocheron. Government Regulation of the Elizabethan Drama. Columbia University Press. $1.25 net.
Gómez de Avellaneda's Baltasar, A Biblical Drama. Edited by Carlos Bransby. American Book Co. 65 cents.
Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea. Edited by Waterman Thomas Hewett. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Grey, Zane. The Last of the Plainsmen. Outing Publishing Co. $1.50 net.
Grinnell, George Bird. Jack, the Young Explorer. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Hay, Oliver Perry. The Fossil Turtles of North America. Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.
Heyse's Er Soll dein Herr sein. Edited by Martin H. Haertel. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Hockenberry, John Coulter. The Rural School in the United States. State Normal School, Westfield, Mass. 75 cents.
Hodell, Charles W. The Old Yellow Book, Source of Browning's The Ring and the Book. Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.
Jenks, Tudor. Photography for Young People. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50 net.
John of Worcester. The Chronicle of, 1118-1140. J. R. H. Weaver, editor. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Knapp, Adeline. The Well in the Desert. The Century Co. $1.50.
Lair, Jules. Louise de la Vallière and the Early Life of Louis XIV. Translated by Ethel Colburn Mayne. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Leopold, I. H. M. Antonius Imperator. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 3s.
Marlowe Selections. A. T. Quiller-Couch, editor. Oxford Clarendon Press. 4d.
McArthur, Alexander. The Leveller. C. H. Doscher & Co.
Minot, Charles S. The Problem of Age, Growth, and Death. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Morrow, W. C. Lentala of the South Seas. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Parsons, Eugene. The Making of Colorado. Chicago: A. Flanagan Co. 65 cents.
Richards, Laura E. The Wooing of Calvin Parks. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.25.
Richman, Julia, and Wallach, Isabel Richman. Good Citizenship. American Book Co. 45 cents.
Royal Society of London. Catalogue of Scientific Papers, 1800-1900. Subject Index Vol I., Pure Mathematics. Cambridge: University Press. 21s. net.
Sélincourt, Hugh de. Great Raleigh. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Sheldon, Mary Boardman. Coffee and a Love Affair. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Sichel, Edith. The Later Years of Catherine di Medici. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.
Smith, George Adam. Jerusalem. The Topography, Economics, and History from the Earliest Times to A.D. 70. A C. Armstrong & Son. 2 vols. $7.50 net.
Turrell, Charles Alfred. A Spanish Reader. American Book Co. 80 cents.
White, Stewart Edward. The Riverman. The McClure Co.
Xenophon's Hellenica. Selections. Edited by Carleton L. Brownson. American Book Co. $1.65.
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